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HANDBOOK FOR TRAVELLERS

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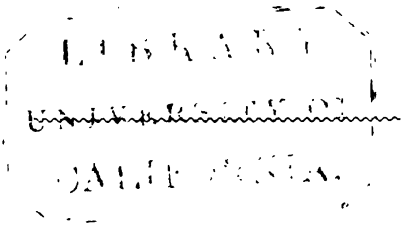

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PREFACE.

THE present Handbook for Russia, Poland, and Finland will be found to vary materially from the edition corrected in 1849. The Russian empire has since passed through a memorable struggle on the shores of the Black Sea, and the Emperor Nicholas has been succeeded by Alexander II., the Emancipator. The changes evolved by these two events have been so much in favour of travellers, and have made Russia a country so highly interesting to those who study the political progress of nations and the consequent increase of their well-being, that a new edition of the Handbook has become a matter of urgent necessity.

Recent travellers in Russia will attest that there is now no country on the Continent where foreigners are more free from the vexatious proceedings of custom-house and police officers. The passport-system of Russia, once so strictly enforced, at present only demands that the traveller should be provided with a national passport bearing the *visa* that will be readily given by any Russian diplomatic or consular authority; and even during his residence and his travels within the empire the stranger is subject to no further police regulations than the exhibition of his passport at the hotel or house where he resides. He may converse on politics as freely as in his own country, and study the social condition of the empire in all its interesting phases of transition without let or hindrance, and without any fear of the liabilities described by writers on Russia ten years ago.

The introduction of railways is among the most important changes that the traveller will find in Russia. The fact is not sufficiently known or appreciated that the journey to St. Petersburg may be performed throughout the entire distance by rail in three and a half to four days. Nor is there any longer the necessity of posting through a country of which the language to a Western traveller is incomprehensible, and of which the roads were, perhaps, the worst in Europe. A railway connects Moscow

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with St. Petersburg; and express-trains convey the European to meet the Asiatic at the fair of Nijni-Novgorod. A few other short lines already run between places of commercial and historical interest, and are described in this work; many others are either commenced or projected. The great trunk line in course of construction between Moscow and the Southern, most productive provinces of Russia, and the line that will unite it with the Baltic Provinces by way of Witepsk, will open several new routes of much importance. There is no doubt that the complete intersection of the empire by railroads will attract, in addition to the travellers for pleasure and instruction, numerous commercial and financial agents, who will eagerly seek their profit in developing the resources of such a new and fertile country. The adoption of a liberal tariff, obviously impending in the interest both of the Russian people and of the Imperial revenue, will still further promote individual and commercial intercourse with England, to the immeasurable advantage of the agricultural interest of the one country, and the manufacturing industry of the other.

A Handbook for such a vast empire as Russia must necessarily be a compilation; and the text of 1849 having been almost entirely abandoned, the difficulty and tediousness of preparing this edition have been much aggravated by the want of recent guide-books for St. Petersburg and Moscow even in the Russian language. For the new materials which constitute the present edition I am indebted to many kind contributors. Mr. J. Savile Lumley, Secretary of Embassy, has given the Handbook the advantage of his artistic knowledge in the description of the Picture Galleries of the Hermitage. To the Directors and Curators of the Hermitage I owe much assistance in preparing the guide to the Sculpture Gallery and Painted Vases, the index to its Art collections, and the catalogue of the principal objects in the Museum of Greek Antiquities from Kertch. The Route through the Crimea is by Mr. Nicholas Rowe, who visited it in 1864. Mr. Sutherland Edwards, whose works on Russia and Poland are well known for their correctness, has supplied the Historical Notice on Poland; while Mr. R. G. Watson, late Attaché to H.M.'s Legation at Teheran, has afforded the greater part of the information contained in the Routes to

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Persia. My grateful acknowledgments are also due to several other literary coadjutors at St. Petersburg and Moscow; and beyond all this assistance I have consulted many Russian works descriptive of local interests and curiosities. The remainder is the result of personal travel and observation during a residence of many years in Russia.

. . . . . T. MICHELL, F.R.G.S.,

Attaché to Her Majesty's Embassy at the Court of Russia.

London, May, 1865.

PREFACE TO SECOND NEW EDITION.

THE exhaustion of the previous editions affords an opportunity of making considerable additions to the Handbook for Russia, and of altering such parts of it as were no longer applicable to existing circumstances. At the same time, the sudden and rapid extension of railways in Russia, particularly in the more Southern parts of the Empire, renders it impossible to present to the public a work which shall give a faultless description of the several routes, liable as they are to almost daily modifications.

In the present edition the traveller will, however, find more detailed reference to the History of Russia in connection with the towns through which the lines in construction or already completed will enable him to pass, as well as a less imperfect sketch of the routes through the Crimea.

In re-arranging and amplifying these, no unsparing use has been made of Mr. H. D. Seymour's excellent work, 'Russia on the Shores of the Black Sea.'

It is also right to acknowledge that the 'Geographical Dictionary of Russia,' edited by Mr. P. Semenoff, Director of the Statistical Department of the Imperial Home Office, has contributed much useful information.

T. M.

St. Petersburg, July, 1868.

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A

HANDBOOK FOR TRAVELLERS

IN

RUSSIA, POLAND, AND FINLAND.

SECTION I.—RUSSIA.

INTRODUCTION.

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1.—Historical Notice.

The space allotted to this sketch being sufficient only to furnish the traveller with a few historical memoranda of the remarkable events in Russian history and of the most celebrated sovereigns who have swayed the destinies of that empire, renders it impossible to give any descriptive details, more particularly of those monarchs who lived nearer to our own times, and who have figured conspicuously in European politics. The more salient and important points will, therefore, alone be mentioned. Further historical data will be found scattered through this Handbook.

History and tradition concur in showing that Europe was peopled by three great families of the human race, who emigrated westward, at distinct periods; the last of these migrations was that of the Slavonians, who established themselves on the Don about 400 years before Christ. In the days of Herodotus their mode of life was exceedingly rude and barbarous; they

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had no houses, and lived a nomadic and pastoral life, journeying from one verdant spot to another, and stopping at each only so long as they found sufficient pasture for their flocks and herds. Like all the other aboriginal races of Europe, the Slavonians dwelt together in more or less numerous colonies governed by elected or hereditary Elders of a patriarchal type. They held their councils of wise men, who administered laws very similar to those of the Germanic races. Their principal occupations were the rearing of cattle, the chase and the management of bees, while their chief characteristics seem to have been in a degree analogous to those of their descendants, the modern Russians:—they were hospitable, courageous, good-humoured, contented, and immoderately fond of spirituous liquors; like most barbarous nations, however, the courage of the Slaves frequently degenerated into cruelty, and murder was no uncommon crime amongst them. The law of vengeance or retaliation was acted upon until the introduction of the penalties or compensation in money known as *weregeld* in German, and *vira* in Slavonian. Their religion was idolatrous, and their mode of worship resembled the gross and degraded forms of the ancient Druids; they not only offered up their prisoners as a holocaust to their chief deity, Perune, the Zeus of the Greeks and the Jupiter of the Romans, but would sometimes even immolate their own children to his honour.

It was not till the fifth century that the wild Slavonians, who had overrun a large portion of European Russia, founded any remarkable settlements; these were Novgorod, on the Ilmen, and Kief, or Kiow, on the Dnieper; where they afterwards became distinguished for their commerce, their riches, and incipient civilization. The tribal groups of the North began, about the middle of the 9th century, to feel a want of unity and of a system of government better adapted to the civilization which their intercourse with the Germans and the Greeks was introducing. Embroiled in dissensions, and subject on the S.E. to the exactions of Asiatic races encamped on the Volga and the Don, and on the N.W. to the depredations of the sea-kings, the Slavonians, according to an old chronicle, sent a deputation to the Variags, or Normans, with the message and the invitation, "Our land is great and bountiful, but there is no order in it; come and rule over us." In 864 Rurik, a Norman prince, took up his residence at Novgorod, and there founded the Russian monarchy, the sceptre of which continued to be held by his descendants for upwards of 700 years. Two of Rurik's followers subsequently left him to seek their fortunes in the south, and on their journey to Constantinople they attacked the town of Kief, gained possession of it, and it thus became the capital of a second Slavonian kingdom.

Six sovereigns succeeded Rurik, who, with their military comrades or drujina, were constantly making war upon neighbouring tribes or fighting for the right of succession to the throne of Kief, then the capital of Russia. These princes all followed the pagan worship of their fathers; but Vladimir, the seventh in descent, who possessed himself of the throne in 981, was converted to Christianity, originally introduced, although not established, by Olga, who embraced the Greek religion at Constantinople about the year 955. His nature became changed, the cruelty of his disposition gave way to clemency and humility, and when awarding punishments for crime he is said to have exclaimed, "What am I, that I should condemn a fellow-

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creature to death?" He also endeavoured to overcome the violent prejudices and superstitions of his subjects by founding seminaries, with professors from Greece; and from that classic land he likewise procured architects and other artisans to instruct his people in their several crafts. His military conquests embraced the whole of Poland. Vladimir deserved well of his country, and the Russian Church has enrolled him among the number of her saints. His son Yaroslaf, who reigned thirty-five years, and died at the age of seventy-seven years, was a prince of considerable attainments and a great patron of the arts; the church of St. Sophia, at Novgorod, was by his order decorated with pictures and mosaics, portions of which remain to the present time. His wars with Boleslas of Poland, as well as his acquirements and the splendour in which he lived, made his name known and respected throughout Europe. Three of his daughters were married to the Kings of France, Norway, and Hungary; and his eldest son, Vladimir, who died before him, espoused a daughter of the unfortunate Harold, the last of our Saxon kings. Yaroslaf died in 1054, and, like his father, divided his territories among his sons. Vladimir Monomachus, his grandson, who died in the early part of the next century, did the same; and as the princely house multiplied, the country was continually a prey to internal dissensions and strife. In the year preceding the death of Monomachus, Kief was nearly destroyed by fire, and from the great number of churches and houses that fell a prey to the flames that city must have been of great opulence and extent. This calamity was followed in the succeeding reign by a still greater one, when the sister capital, Novgorod, was desolated by a famine so awful that the survivors were not sufficiently numerous to bury the dead, and the streets were blocked up by the putrid corpses of the inhabitants.

The reigns which followed this period of Russian history are distinguished by little else than continual civil wars, with this exception, that the town of Vladimir, built by Yury I., in 1158, became in that year the capital instead of Kief. But a formidable enemy drew near in the person of Tushi, the son of Zenghis Khan, who, emigrating with his Tartars westward, led them, about the year 1223, from the shores of the Sea of Aral and the Caspian, to those of the Dnieper. The Circassians and Polovtzes having endeavoured in vain to arrest the progress of the horde, were at length constrained to apply to their hitherto inveterate foes for assistance, and, the cause being now equally dear to all parties, the Russians made an intrepid stand on the banks of the Khalka. The impetuous attack, however, of the invaders was not to be withstood; and, the Prince of Kief treacherously abstaining from taking part in the battle, the Russians were completely routed, and scarcely a tenth part of an army composed of 100,000 men escaped. The enemy then pursued his way unmolested to the capital, which he took, and put 50,000 of the inhabitants of the principality of Kief to the sword. The further progress of the Tartars northward was marked by fire and bloodshed; but, having reached Novgorod Severski, they faced about and retreated to the camp of Zenghis Khan, who was at this time in Bukharia. Thirteen years after, Baati Khan, his grandson, desolated Russia again, committing every species of cruelty and many breaches of faith with

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the towns which submitted to his arms. In this manner the provinces of Riazan, Periaslavl, Rostof, and several others fell into his hands: for with incredible apathy, and contrary to their usually warlike inclinations, the Russian princes neglected to raise any troops to dispute the progress of the Tartars; and the attention of Yury II., Prince of Vladimir, was at that important juncture engrossed in celebrating the marriage of one of his boyars. Roused, at length, to a sense of his desperate position, he placed himself at the head of some troops hastily called together, and left his family under the protection of one of his nobles, trusting that his capital would be able to sustain a long siege. He was mistaken: the Tartars soon made themselves masters of Vladimir, and the princesses, as well as other persons of distinction, were burnt alive in the church in which they had taken shelter. On hearing of this tragical event, Yury marched with his adherents to meet the foe: the contest was sanguinary and short; but, after performing prodigies of valour the Russians were borne down by overpowering numbers, and the prince was left amongst the slain. There was now nothing to arrest the march of the ruthless Tartars, and they pushed forward to within sixty miles of Novgorod, when they again turned round without any ostensible motive and evacuated the Russian territory. The wretched condition into which the southern and central parts of the empire were thrown by these invasions afforded a most advantageous opportunity for other enemies to attack it; and, accordingly, in 1242, and during the reign of Yaroslaf II., the Swedes, Danes, and Livonians, sent a numerous and well-disciplined army to demand the submission of Novgorod; this, Alexander, the son of the reigning prince, refused, and, leaving his capital, he advanced, unaided by any allies, to meet his opponents, and fought the celebrated battle of the Nevá, which gained him the surname of Nevski and a place in the Russian calendar. The personal courage of Alexander in this battle was of the highest order, and mainly contributed to secure the victory.

A cruel and constantly fluctuating war with the Tartars, various incursions by the Livonians, Lithuanians, Swedes, and Poles, and the most frightful civil discord amongst the several, almost regal, provinces of Russia, occupied fourteen successive reigns, between Yury II., who died in 1237, and Ivan I., who succeeded his father in the principality of Vladimir in 1328. At times, during this period, the Tartars arrogated to themselves the power of protectors of this or that interest; and in the case of Ivan I., Uzbek Khan secured to him the possession of Novgorod, as well as of Vladimir and Moscow. Ivan's father had greatly beautified and improved the latter town, and Ivan followed his example and made it his residence. Here also resided the Metropolitan, and it therefore rapidly advanced in importance. Ivan's reign of thirteen years was remarkable as improving and peaceful; and he exercised a sound discretion by building a wall of wood round the city, which supported a rampart of earth and stone. At the close of his life he took monastic vows, and died in 1341. In the reign of Ivan II., second son of the previous Tsar of that name, Moscow established its pre-eminence as a city, and became the capital of the empire. Ivan died in 1358.

Towards the close of this century the Russians, under Dmitri IV., raised an army of 400,000 men, and met the Tartars near the Don, and defeated

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them with great loss; the victors, however, suffered greatly, and when Dmitri reviewed his army after the battle he found it reduced to 40,000 men: this success obtained for him the surname of Donski. Subsequently, however, to this victory the Tartars again advanced, and Dmitri, betrayed by his allies, the princes of the neighbouring states, deserted Moscow, which fell by capitulation into the hands of the Tartars, who devastated it with fire and sword until it was utterly destroyed, no building being permitted to remain except those which happened to have been constructed of stone by the Grand Prince. The character of Dmitri is thus given by the Metropolitan Cyprian:—"He knew," says that ecclesiastic, "how to soften the kingly office by condescension; he was impartial in the administration of justice, and delighted to promote the peace and happiness of his subjects; his learning was small, but the rectitude of his disposition and the kindness of his heart supplied the defects of education, and entitle him to a distinguished place amongst Russian sovereigns." His son, Basil II., who succeeded him in 1389, was destined to see his country invaded by the Tartars under Tamerlane, but they never reached the capital, for he prepared to give them battle on the river Oka, when they suddenly turned round and retired, as their countrymen had previously done on two other occasions. The Russians attributed this to a miracle performed by a picture of the Virgin Mary, painted by St. Luke. The horde, however, joined by the Lithuanians, afterwards laid siege to Moscow, but were repulsed by the inhabitants, the Grand Prince having retired with his family to Kostroma; exasperated at this defeat, the Tartars in their retreat pillaged the surrounding country and slaughtered the defenceless peasantry. Money was first coined in Novgorod during this reign: hitherto its place had been supplied with skins and pieces of leather; twenty skins of the marten were considered as equivalent to a *grivna*, the value of which was a real pound of gold or silver, of nine and a quarter ounces in Kief, and thirteen in Novgorod.

During the reign of Basil Russia was thrice visited with the plague and famine, while the ancient city of Novgorod was shaken by an earthquake after the greater part of its buildings had been consumed by fire. Internal dissensions broke out on the death of Basil, a dispute having arisen respecting the succession to the throne between the son of that monarch and his uncle George: this was, by the consent of both parties, left to the decision of the Khan of Tartary, who determined in favour of the former; nevertheless, a civil war followed, and George was for a short time in possession of the throne, when, finding himself abandoned by his party and his family, he restored it to his nephew, and returned to his principality of Galitch. Complicated wars, Russian and Tartar, followed; the principal incident of which was that Ivan, the Prince of Mojaisk, in the interest of the traitor Shémiaka, induced Basil to stop at the monastery of the Troitsa to return thanks on his arrival from the horde, and, having seized him there, he took him to Moscow and put out his eyes. A few years after the Prince of Mojaisk had committed this savage act Basil was restored to the throne, and died in 1462.

The first exploit which Basil's successor, Ivan III., attempted was the

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reduction of Kazan, in which he succeeded after two severe campaigns; the next was the subjection of Novgorod, in which he also succeeded, incorporating that city and province with his own dominions, and, having received the oaths of the inhabitants, he carried off with him to Moscow their celebrated Veché bell.* The next and most arduous undertaking was the destruction of the Golden Horde under Akhmet, which he effected in revenge for the insult offered him by that Khan in demanding the homage which he had received from his predecessors. Ivan spat on the edict and on Akhmet's seal, and put his ambassadors to death, sparing one only to convey the intelligence to his master, who prepared in the following year to take his revenge; but, awed by the preparations made to receive him on the Oka, he retired for a time, and subsequently took the more circuitous route through Lithuania, from which country he expected support; the Russians, however, met and defeated a part of his horde, and were returning home, when the Khan was met on a different route by the Nogay Tartars, who routed his army and slew him in the battle. His ally, Casimir IV., also brought himself under Ivan's indignation, not only for this war, but because he attempted to poison him, and a raid that he made into the territories of the Polish king was eminently successful. This powerful and ambitious prince also made treaties of alliance with, and received ambassadors from, the Pope, the Sultan, the Kings of Denmark and Poland, and from the Republic of Venice; it was he who assumed the title of Grand Prince of Novgorod, Vladimir, Moscow, and all Russia, and changed the arms of St. George on horseback for the Black Eagle with two heads, after his marriage with Sophia, a princess of the imperial blood of Constantinople. In fact, Ivan III. may be called the true founder of the modern Russian empire. The Russian historian Karamsin thus describes him:—"Without being a tyrant like his grandson, he had received from nature a certain harshness of character which he knew how to moderate by the strength of his reason. It is, however, said that a single glance of Ivan, when he was excited with anger, would make a timid woman swoon, that petitioners dreaded to approach his throne, and that even at his table the boyars, his grandees, trembled before him;" which portrait does not belie his own declaration, when the same boyars demanded that he should give the crown to his grandson Ivan, whom he had dispossessed in favour of a son by his second wife, "I will give to Russia whomsoever I please." He died, very infirm, in 1505, having reigned forty-three years. Wars between the Russians, the Poles, the Tartars, and the Novgorodians again arose on the death of Ivan; and it was not till the death of Basil IV., his successor, and a minority of twelve years had elapsed in the reign of Ivan IV., that internal cabals and intrigues were for a time suppressed. This monarch, the first to take the title of *Tsar*,† married Anastasia, the daughter of Roman Yury-vitch, who in the early part of his reign had the happiest ascendency over a character naturally violent and cruel. Ivan was at this period affable and condescending, accessible to both rich and poor, and his mental powers,

* For the history of that ancient Republic, *vide* Route 5.

† The sovereigns of Russia had hitherto been called Grand Princes. *Tsar* is derived from the Greek *Kaisar*. *Czar* is a corrupt orthography of the title, and in Polish reads *Char*.

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under her guidance, were employed in advancing the interests and happiness of his subjects. Ivan soon perceived that to preserve his own power he must annihilate the Tartar dominion; to this he felt his uninstructed army was unequal: he therefore established, in 1545, the militia of the Streltsi, and armed them with muskets instead of bows,—hitherto their arms, as their name imports, from *Strela*, an arrow. He then laid siege to and captured Kazan, taking the Khan prisoner. He likewise defeated Gustavus Wasa in a pitched battle near Wyborg, ravaged Livonia, taking Dorpat, Narva, and thirty fortified towns, and made war on the King of Poland because he had refused him his daughter in marriage. An unsuccessful campaign against this potentate, attributed by the boyars to the unskilful arrangements of the foreign generals, as well as the death of his wife Anastasia, whose controlling influence was no longer felt, led to the unlimited indulgence of his naturally ferocious disposition; and the remaining acts of his life, which this short sketch will not permit us to dilate upon, gained for him in the history of his country the surname of "The Terrible." Independently of the many and dreadful acts of barbarity of which he was guilty, he killed his own son in a paroxysm of rage, but died a prey to the grief and remorse which this fearful crime occasioned, after having endeavoured to atone for it by giving large sums of money to different monasteries: he received the tonsure in his last moments. As a legislator he was superior to his predecessors, having, with the assistance of his nobles, compiled a code of laws called *Sudebnik*. In his reign an English ship, commanded by Richard Chancellor, on a voyage of discovery in the Arctic Sea, anchored in the mouth of the Dwina.* Ivan controlled his religious prejudices, and tolerated the Lutheran churches of the German merchants at Moscow; but he never shook hands with a foreign ambassador without washing his own immediately after the visitor had taken his leave. With a character so strongly marked by cruelty, superstition, and caprice, it is remarkable to find not only that he was enterprising and intelligent, but that he should have entertained the idea of placing the Scriptures in the hands of his subjects in the mother-tongue: he ordered a translation to be made of the Acts and Epistles, and had it disseminated over his dominions. "*In the memory of the people*," observes Karamzin, "the brilliant renown of Ivan survived the recollection of his bad qualities. The groans had ceased, the victims were reduced to dust; new events caused *ancient traditions* to be forgotten, and the memory of this prince reminded people only of the conquest of three Mogul kingdoms. The proofs of his atrocious actions were buried in the public archives, whilst Kazan, Astrakhan, and Siberia remained in the eyes of the nation as imperishable monuments of his glory. The Russians, who saw in him the illustrious author of their power and civilization, rejected or forgot the surname of tyrant given him by his contemporaries. Under the influence of some confused recollections of his cruelty they still call him Ivan 'The Terrible,' without distinguishing him from his grandfather Ivan III., to whom Russia had given the same epithet rather in praise than in reproach. History does not pardon wicked princes so easily as do people." Ivan IV.

* For history of intercourse between Russia and England, *vide* 'British Factory and Chapel.'

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died in 1584, having governed the Russian nation for a longer period than any other sovereign, namely, fifty-one years.*

Theodore I., who ascended the throne after his death, and was a feeble and vacillating prince, died in 1598. His successor was Boris Godunof, his wife's brother, who, like our own Richard, compassed the death of his nephew Dmitri, son of John the Terrible; and therefore in Theodore ended the dynasty of Rurik, which during seven centuries had wielded the Russian sceptre. Consequent upon this deed came all kinds of civil calamities, and in 1604 a pretender to the throne arose in the person of a Russian monk. This man assumed the character of the murdered Dmitri, and after having drawn to his standard the Poles and the Cossacks of the Don, met Boris in the field, remained master of it, and in the space of one year seated himself on the throne. Nor was this civil war the only calamity which befell the Russians during the reign of Boris; Moscow was, in 1600, visited by the most appalling famine that ever devastated the capital of a country. It is related that, driven by the pangs of hunger, instances occurred of mothers having first slain and then eaten their own children; and it is recorded that a woman, in her extremity, seized with her teeth the flesh of her son, whom she carried in her arms. Others confessed that they had entrapped into their dwellings, and subsequently killed and eaten, three men successively. One hundred and twenty-seven thousand corpses remained for some days in the streets unburied, and were afterwards interred in the fields, exclusive of those which had been previously buried in the four hundred churches of the city. An eyewitness relates that this awful visitation carried off 500,000 persons from the densely-peopled capital, the population of which was at the time augmented by the influx of strangers. During this dreadful calamity, Boris, with justifiable violence, broke open the granaries which avarice had closed, and had the corn sold at half its value.

Serfdom was instituted during the reign of Boris Godunof. By his advice a decree was issued, on the 24th Nov. 1597, a year previous to the death of Theodore, forbidding peasants to leave the lands on which that date should find them. This was the first enactment that bound the peasantry firmly to the soil. Earlier traces of their attachment are, it is true, to be found in the middle of the 13th cent., during the Tartar dominion, when a census was taken, in 1257, in order to secure the regular collection of taxes. The inhabitants of towns and villages were then forbidden to leave them without permission, and the custom sprang up by degrees of restricting the migrations of the rural population to the commencement or termination of the agricultural season. The custom was legalized in 1497, and confirmed by John IV. in 1550; but the full and final attachment of the husbandman to the soil was not consummated until the close of the 16th century.

Interminable and inexplicable troubles, a second false Dmitri, and other

* For an account of the *Opritchniks* and other acts of the reign of John the Terrible, *vide* the description of Moscow.

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impostors, led, after the short reign of Shuiski (1605-1606), to the occupation of Moscow by the Poles, in 1610, who entered the city with Vladislaus, son of Sigismund King of Poland, elected to the throne by the boyars, on condition that he should embrace the Greek religion. This gave great offence to the national feeling, and Minin, a citizen of Nijni-Novgorod, called his countrymen to arms, and entreated the boyar Pojarski to take the command. This he did without reluctance, and his army was quickly increased by the arrival of troops and money from various towns, and by the Cossacks and Streltsi, who flocked to his banner. Thus strengthened, they marched to Yaroslaf, and afterwards to Moscow, to which they laid siege, carried the Kitai Gorod by assault, and made a fearful slaughter of the Poles; when the occupants of the Kremlin, driven to the last extremity by famine, surrendered, and Vladislaus abandoned the country.

In 1613, after the flight of Vladislaus, the States-General, convoked by the boyars and military chiefs, proceeded to elect as their Tsar Michael Romanoff, the son of the Metropolitan of Rostof, who was at the time only sixteen years of age. He was proclaimed Tsar of all the Russias, without the title of Autocrat, enjoyed by the Sovereigns after John III., and the Act of Election stipulated many important rights to the people. Civil strife and foreign wars continued after the accession of Michael; and that in which the Tsar was involved with Gustavus Adolphus was terminated, not much to the advantage of Russia, through the mediation of England, France, and Holland. A treaty was signed by the belligerent parties on the 26th of January, 1616, which gave to Sweden Ingria, Carelia, Livonia, and Esthonia, the Russians retaining Novgorod. The Poles were at that time masters of Smolensk, and ravaged the country up to the walls of Moscow, against which they made a night attack, but were repulsed; they remained, however, in possession of Smolensk, after sustaining a siege of two years. Dragoons are mentioned for the first time in this reign, as forming part of a Russian army, and the Tsar was assisted in his wars by both German and French troops; these regiments served him as models for the organization of the Russian army, which was further improved by the discipline introduced by Scottish officers. After a reign distinguished by an enlightened policy and virtuous habits, the Tsar died in July, 1645, at the age of forty-nine years. His son Alexis, who was a prince of a mild and benevolent disposition, succeeded him. The chief events of his reign were the marauding expeditions of the Cossacks of the Don, led by Stenka Razin, a rebellion in the city of Astrakhan, and the appearance of another Pretender, who was brought captive to Moscow, and put to a violent and cruel death. In this reign shipwrights came over from Holland and England, and a Dutchman named Butler built a vessel called the Eagle, at Dedinova, a village on the Oka river, near the mouth of the Moskva. This was the first ship that the Russians had seen built on scientific principles. The Tsar Alexis directed his attention to legal reforms, and his reign is most remarkable for the improvements which he introduced. The States-General, a body composed of delegates from all classes, and first summoned in 1550, after the suppression of the old Veché or Wittenagemotes, were convoked in 1648, for the compilation of a new

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code of laws. Little Russia and Red Russia (Galicia), conquered by Casimir the Great in the 14th century, submitted to Alexis. An account of his quarrel with the Patriarch Nicon, and of the origin of dissent in the Russian Church, will be read in Route 6. Alexis died in 1676, and was succeeded by his son Theodore III., who died young in 1682. During the short period allotted him for the exercise of power he evinced every disposition to carry out his father's plans; he directed his attention to the improvement of the laws, and rendered justice accessible to all, and, in the words of a Russian historian, "lived the joy and delight of his people, and died amidst their sighs and tears. On the day of his death Moscow was in the same distress that Rome was on the death of Titus." The sovereignty of the Cossacks was secured to Russia in this reign. Theodore left no children, and named no successor, expecting, no doubt, that his own brother Ivan would succeed him. That prince, however, was both mentally and physically incapable of holding the reins of government, and, in consequence, his sister Sophia was intrusted with the affairs of state by the Streltsi, who had arrogated to themselves the power of the Prætorian bands, and decided that the Tsar's half-brother, Peter, afterwards the Great, the son of Natalia, Alexis's second wife, should share the throne with him. The two boys were therefore crowned together by the Patriarch on the 15th of June, 1682, but Sophia actually reigned. Subsequently to this the Prince Khovanski, leader of the Streltsi, not only neglecting to cultivate the princess's friendship, but allowing her to perceive that he and his men watched her proceedings, she determined upon his ruin, which was further hastened by the intrigue of his known enemy, Miloslavski. This boyar accused him, in a public placard, of having, with his son and his Streltsi, conspired to effect the death of the two Tsars and the destruction of the family of Romanoff; and, under this accusation, Khovanski and his son were seized and beheaded. Their followers, at first furious at Khovanski's death, afterwards becoming disheartened at the preparations made to resist and punish them, proceeded to the monastery of the Troitsa, and made their submission to Natalia and the Tsars, who had fled there for refuge. Subsequently Sophia still contrived, with the assistance of her Minister, Galitzin, to govern Russia, until she affronted Peter, who retired to the town of Kolomna, to which place he was followed by a large party; and soon after this, being informed that the Streltsi were again in revolt, under Sophia's influence, Natalia once more removed him to the fortified walls of the Troitsa. It was in vain that Sophia disclaimed this accusation. Peter neither believed her nor forgave her; and, failing in her attempt to reach Poland, she was incarcerated in a monastery for the rest of her life. This princess was, considering the times in which she lived, a woman of extraordinary taste and literary acquirements. A tragedy, written by her when she was involved in state intrigues, and apparently absorbed in political turmoil, is still preserved. On Peter's return from the Troitsa to Moscow, his brother resigned to him his share in the government, and in 1689 he became sole Tsar, being, at this time, only seventeen years of age. Ivan survived till 1696.

The ruling passion of Peter the Great was a desire to extend his empire and consolidate his power; and accordingly, his first act was to make war

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on the Turks, an undertaking which was at the outset imprudently conducted, and consequently unsuccessful; he lost 30,000 men before Azoff, and did not obtain permanent possession of the town till the year 1699, and then by an armistice. In the following year he was defeated at Narva by an inferior force, under Charles XII., then only a boy of seventeen; and on many other occasions the Russians suffered severe checks and reverses. But at length the indomitable perseverance of Peter prevailed. St. Petersburg was founded in 1703, under the circumstances detailed in the description of the city. In 1705 he carried Narva, the scene of his former defeat, by assault; and two years after, by the crowning victory of Poltava, where he showed the qualities of an able general, he sealed the fate of his gallant and eccentric adversary, and that of the nation over which he ruled. In 1711 Peter once more took the field against the Turks; but his troops were badly provisioned, and, having led them into a very disadvantageous position near the Pruth, he was reduced to propose a peace, one of the conditions of which was that the King of Sweden should be permitted to return to his own country. From this period to 1718 he was constantly occupied in pursuing with vigour the plans which he had originated for extending the frontiers of his kingdom towards the sea; and in 1718 he drove the Swedes out of Finland, made several descents upon the coast near Stockholm, destroyed whole towns, and finally, in 1721, by the peace of Nystadt, retained Esthonia, Livonia, Ingria, a part of Carelia and Finland, as well as the islands of Dago, Moen, Oesel, &c. Having now no enemy on this side, he turned his arms eastward, and took Derbend, on the Caspian, in 1724—an inglorious conquest, for only 6000 men were opposed to his veteran army of 11,000, besides Cossacks and Kalmucks. This was his last military achievement, for he died in 1725, in the fifty-second year of his age.

We have said that the Tsar's ruling passion was to extend his empire and consolidate his power, but he likewise possessed in an eminent degree a persevering mind and a resolute will, which bid defiance to all difficulties. By the assistance of his foreign officers he succeeded in forming and bringing into a high state of discipline a large army; he found Russia without a fishing-smack, and bequeathed to her a navy, to which that of Sweden, long established and highly efficient, lowered her flag; he built Petersburg, which may be said to float upon the waters of the Neva; he caused canals and other works of public utility to be constructed in various parts of the empire, endowed colleges and universities, and established commercial relations with China and almost every other nation on the globe. The Tsar likewise possessed the capability of enduring privation and bodily fatigue to an almost incredible extent, and seemed to act upon the idea that by his own personal exertions and the versatility of his genius he could accomplish for Russia that which it had taken centuries to effect in other countries, and fancied he could infuse into her citizens an immediate appreciation of the mechanical and polite arts, as well as a taste for those things which are seen only in an advanced stage of civilization. Peter devoted his whole attention and energies to this theory, and, though he could not compass impossibilities, he was enabled, by the uncontrolled exercise of the imperial will and inexhaustible resources, to effect a most extraordinary and rapid change in the political and

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physical condition of his country. The States-General were no more summoned. The Tsar now reigned alone, without even the old Chamber or Council of Boyars, that had existed through so many previous reigns. In their place he founded the Senate, or High Court of Justice, which is preserved to this day. His system of administration was founded on the Swedish Collegiate Institutions. Dissent from the Church was very much increased by his reforms, which even included the shaving of beards. The opponents of the ritual of Nicon styled him the Antichrist.

The manual dexterity and mechanical knowledge of Peter were great. Against the expressed wish of his boyars and the clergy, who thought it an irreligious act, he left Russia to make himself acquainted with the arts and inventions of other European nations, and worked with an adze in their principal dockyards—he not only built, but sailed his own boat, which is still to be seen in St. Petersburg, as are specimens of his engraving, turning, and carpenter's work. He rose at four, at six he was either in the senate or the admiralty, and his subjects must have believed that he had the gift of ubiquity, so many and various were his occupations. He had also the virtue of economy, a quality rarely seen in a sovereign. He even found time for literature, and translated several works into Russian; amongst these was the 'Architecture' of Leclerc, and the 'Art of Constructing Dams and Mills' by Sturm; these MSS. are preserved. During the Tsar's visit to London he was much gazed at by the populace, and on one occasion was upset by a porter who pushed against him with his load, when Lord Carmarthen, fearing there would be a pugilistic encounter, turned angrily to the man, and said, "Don't you know that this is the Tsar?" "Tsar!" replied the man, with his tongue in his cheek, "we are all Tsars here." Sauntering one day into Westminster Hall with the same nobleman, when it was, as usual, alive with wigs and gowns, Peter asked who these people might be, and, when informed that they were lawyers, nothing could exceed his astonishment. "Lawyers!" he said; "why, I have but two in all my dominions, and I believe I shall hang one of them the moment I get home." His vices were such as to have been expected in a man of his violent temperament, despotic in a barbarous country, and who in early life had been surrounded by flatterers and dissolute associates. But it would be foreign to the purpose of this work to enter into a discussion of this nature. The Russians date their civilization from his reign; but a slight glance at the history of some of the early Tsars will show that, in many of the points on which the greatness of his reputation rests, he was anticipated by his predecessors. Dark and savage as the history of the country is, an attempt at public education had been made, religious toleration and an anxiety to promote commerce existed, and the institution of a code of laws had already occupied attention. The untimely deaths of some of these princes deprived Russia of monarchs far more benevolent than Peter, men of finer and more generous minds, and, though not so ambitious, quite as anxious for her welfare. Under their sway no such rush at improvement would have been made; no such influx of foreigners would have taken place; but, if not so rapidly, at least as surely these sovereigns would have effected quite as much real good. Peter left no code of laws established on the broad principles of justice; he

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travelled in England and Holland, but thought only of their navies, and wholly overlooked the great principles of their government, by which he might have ameliorated the condition of his own. Trial by jury never appears to have attracted his attention. The Tsar, it is true, reigned over a nation of serfs—so did Alfred, and in the 9th, instead of the 18th century. The death of his son Alexis, in the fortress of St. Petersburg, whether by violence or from the effects of torture, is an indelible blot on his character. The unhappy Tsarevitch was opposed to his father's reforms, and fled his dominions. Induced by Peter to return to Russia, he was thrown into a dungeon, where he suddenly died, after a cross examination, conducted by the Tsar in person, and a frequent application of torture. The Empress Catherine survived Peter only two years, dying at the age of thirty-nine. The reduction of the capitation tax was the most popular act of her short reign, and Delille, Baer, and the Bernouillis were the most distinguished members of the Academy of Sciences which Peter had left her to open. Peter, the son of Alexis, and grandson of Peter the Great (by his first wife Eudoxia, who survived Catherine), died of the smallpox at the age of fifteen; in him the male line of the Romanoffs became extinct. His intellect was good, and, though so young, he gave great promise of being an honour and a blessing to his country. Anne, Duchess of Courland, who succeeded this youthful sovereign, was daughter of Ivan, half-brother of Peter the Great; she died in 1740, after reigning ten years. Her chief merit was in advancing the commerce of the country, and establishing silk and woollen manufactories—her chief folly, the building of a palace of ice, to which she sent one of her buffoons and his wife to pass the night of their wedding-day, the nuptial couch being also constructed of that cold material, as well as all the furniture, and the four cannons which fired several rounds.

The Duchess of Courland was elected to the throne by the nobles, who caused her to subscribe to a constitution or charter, of which the principal points were that—"Without the advice of the council, rendered irremovable, the sovereign could neither declare war nor make peace; nor could he choose a successor, appoint to the higher offices of state, or impose new taxes. The sovereign was not to punish the gentry, either corporally or by the infliction of fines, without submitting their offences to the ordinary courts of justice." The empress availed herself of the discord which soon reigned in her council to re-establish the absolutism she had surrendered. A sham revolution was organized by exciting the jealousy of the inferior nobility, and by acting on the ignorance of the lower classes. A populace having assembled in front of the palace, and asked to see the empress, she pointed out to Prince Dolgorukof, the High Chancellor, that the people were desirous that she should govern like her ancestors. "What," she asked, "have you said in your Constitution?" Taking the Charter from the trembling hand of the prince, she tore it into pieces before the applauding multitude. Her favourite, Biren, Duke of Courland, caused all the members of the Dolgoruki faction to be either broken on the wheel or banished to the mines of Siberia for ever.

A war which was prosecuted against the Turks in this reign ended to

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the disadvantage of Russia, and, as the price of peace, Azoff, Otchakof, and Moldavia were given up to the Porte. Intrigues drove Ivan VI., the infant son of the Princess of Brunswick, niece of the Empress Anne, from the throne, and in 1741, Elizabeth, daughter of Peter the Great, took possession of it. Ivan was first imprisoned in a monastery, but, having attempted to escape, was removed to the Castle of Schlüsselburg, where he was put to death.

The reign of Elizabeth was one series of wars and intrigues, and wholly unfavourable to the intellectual improvement and progress of the people. The Swedes thought this a favourable moment to recover their ancient possessions, but were obliged to agree to a peace on the basis of that of Nystadt. Detesting Frederic for some coarse remark levelled at her mother, Elizabeth made war with Prussia, which lasted from 1753 to 1762, the year of her death. The taste of this empress for architecture greatly contributed to embellish St. Petersburg, and the Academy of Fine Arts in that capital was instituted by her; but she was a model of hypocrisy, and, while from feelings of pretended humanity she abolished capital punishments and deplored the miseries her troops suffered in the war with Prussia, she established a kind of Star Chamber, in which justice and mercy were unknown. Peter III., son of the Princess Anne, eldest daughter of Peter the Great, succeeded Elizabeth, and, being a great friend of Frederic, he immediately made peace with Prussia; he also suppressed the secret council established for the examination of political offenders, softened the rigour of military discipline, permitted his nobles to travel, lowered the duties in the Livonian ports, reduced the price of salt, and abated the pressure of usury by the establishment of a loan bank, and instituted other salutary and wise measures. He was, however, of a weak and vacillating disposition, and his tastes were entirely German, which amounted to a crime in the eyes of the nobility; this and the intrigues of his wife, afterwards the Empress Catherine II., whom he grossly neglected, led to his downfall, and he died by suffocation at Ropsha in 1762.

The reign of Catherine II. is one of the most remarkable in Russian history. In the early part of it she interfered in the affairs of Poland, which produced a civil war, and ended in the conquest of that country. In 1769 the Turks declared war, which was at first favourable to their arms; they were afterwards defeated with great slaughter on the Dniester, and abandoned Khotin. At this period was fought the celebrated action before Tchesmé, in which the Turkish fleet was completely destroyed, an achievement that was mainly owing to the gallant conduct of Admirals Elphinstone and Greig, and Lieutenant Dugdale, Englishmen in the Russian service. In another campaign the Russians carried the lines of Perecop, defended by 57,000 Turks and Tartars, and thus obtained possession of the Crimea, while Rumiantsoff gained several victories in the Danubian provinces. These conquests were, however, dearly purchased; the plague passed from the Turks into the Russian armies, and the frightful malady was carried by the troops into the very heart of the country; 800 persons died daily at Moscow, and the disease subsided only with the

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severity of the winter. It was in this year that the Kalmuck Tartars, who had been upwards of half a century settled near the steppes of the Volga, north of Astrakhan, suddenly, and to the number of 350,000 souls, left the Russian territory for their old haunts on the Chinese border—an affront offered to them by the empress is said to have been the cause of this extraordinary flight. Every attempt at negotiation having failed, the contest with the Turks was renewed in 1773; and though the Russians again suffered severe losses, Rumiantsoff brought the war to a successful termination; and, by the treaty of peace concluded in 1774, his country obtained the free navigation of the Euxine, the cession of Kinburn, Yenikalé, with a tract between the Bug, the Dnieper, and Taganrog. Russia restored her other conquests, and the Turks paid into the Russian Treasury 4,000,000 of rubles towards the expenses of the war; they also acknowledged the independence of the Crimea, which in the year 1784 fell altogether into the hands of Russia, as well as the island of Taman and part of the Kuban. Shortly after this, Catherine and the northern courts, with France, jealous of British maritime power, brought about a combination against England, which was hastened by the following singular incident. The British minister, fearing that this intrigue was going on, desired Potemkin to lay before the empress a memorial that he had drawn up, which the prince promised to do. Of this memorial the French governess of his nieces contrived to possess herself, and, after allowing the French minister to make his notes in refutation of it in the margin, replaced it in Potemkin's pocket, who, ignorant of the circumstance, laid it before Catherine; when the empress, conceiving the notes to have been made by her favourite, formed a league with Sweden and Denmark, and announced her intention of supporting it with her navy. In 1787 she made, in company with Potemkin and an immense suite, her famous progress to the Crimea, and the following year found her once more at war with the Turks. Finland was invaded by Gustavus III. soon after. This contest was settled by a pacification in 1790. In the close of that year Constantinople trembled at the forward movement of the Russians, and the fall of Ismail under Suwaroff, after the ninth assault, closed the war on the 22nd of December. In this extremity Europe combined to save the Porte from destruction, and in 1791 Russia relinquished all the territory she had acquired, excepting that guaranteed by the treaty of 1784. In these wars with the Ottoman Empire there were destroyed 130,000 Austrians, 200,000 Russians, and 370,000 Turks, in all 660,000 men. About this time the intrigues of Russia, Austria, and Prussia, for the partition of Poland, commenced, and, carried on for several years, were brought to a conclusion by two sieges of Warsaw; in the first Kosciusko was made prisoner, and in the second the Poles, unassisted by his genius, gave way in that fearful assault which, on the 9th November, 1794, consummated the ruin of Poland as a nation. Catherine's subsequent plans of aggrandisement in Daghestan and on the shores of the Caspian were cut short by her death, on the 9th November, 1796. The great talents for governing which the empress possessed are universally admitted; and, though her energies were principally displayed in carrying out her schemes of foreign conquest, she by no means neglected the interior economy of her empire. Her views on

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all subjects were far more enlarged than those of her predecessors, and upwards of 6800 children were educated at St. Petersburg at the public expense. She invited Pallas, Eüler, and Gmelin to survey her territories and describe their characteristics, and requested D'Alembert to undertake the education of her grandson, the Grand Duke Alexander, which he declined. The empress also confirmed the abolition of the secret state inquisition, and, by dividing the administrative colleges of the empire into separate departments, facilitated the despatch of business, and rendered the administration in each more efficient. With a view to check corruption, she raised the salaries of the government officers, put down many monopolies of the crown, and issued an ukaz, which prevented any proprietor from sending his serfs to the mines, or to any distant part of the empire, except for agricultural purposes. She purchased the praises of the French philosophers, corresponded with Voltaire and D'Alembert, and complimented Fox by asking him for his bust, which she placed between those of Cicero and Demosthenes.

Catherine came to the throne eager for fame and anxious to put into practice the philosophic doctrines of the age. It may even be said that she was desirous of reigning constitutionally as far as serfage would permit her. But she was most anxious to be a lawgiver, and her more liberal advisers took advantage of her ambition and promoted the cause of representative government, such as had existed in Russia under the form, first of Veché, then of meetings of the States-General. A Commission was composed of 565 deputies from the nobility, the inhabitants of towns, the military colonies, and the foreign races subject to the empire, as well as from the senate, the synod, and other public offices. This Commission—a Parliament all but in name—met on the 31st July, 1767, at Moscow, and, after listening to the representations made by the several interests, drew up the drafts of laws which Catherine subsequently enacted, and which contributed greatly to the glory of her reign. But the Assembly having commenced an inquiry into the evil of serfdom, the empress dissolved it on the 29th December of the same year.

The Empress Catherine introduced important changes into the condition of the nobility and clergy. The history of these may be here epitomized. The comrades, or drujina, of the early princes of Russia long retained a nomadic character. They passed from one prince to another as those princes ascended in the scale of primogeniture and passed on to the throne of Kief. They acquired no lands, and lived on the contributions which they levied on the Zemstvo, or "people of the land," as distinguished from the servants of the sovereign. On the establishment of the throne of Muscovy, the drujina of the deposed princes repaired to Moscow for employment in the service of the State, and styled themselves bondsmen of the Tsar. At his court they quarrelled perpetually about the right of precedence. Each family guarded jealously its position in relation to other families; and each individual above the condition of a labourer had an hereditary right, most intricately regulated, to a certain social position, which he spent his whole life in asserting. The nobles having become unruly during the reign of John the Terrible, that sovereign put to death a considerable number of his servants, and kept the rest in subordination with a new class

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of nobles, the Opritchna, who carried out his instructions with unsparing brutality. They murdered their victims openly in the streets, and, led by the Tsar, visited villages during the night and razed them to the ground. It was with the assistance of these servants that John IV. subjected all his lieges to despotic government. The old boyars deserted to the Prince of Lithuania, and many were caught and punished. After that reign the older families succeeded in causing Shiuski, one of their order, to be elected Tsar: but on the accession of Michael Romanoff all their privileges were abolished, and the code of 1649, drawn up by the States-General, or Zemstvo, rendered all subjects equal before the law. The nobles, however, now began to acquire lands, which they at first held as feudatories under the Crown, liable to military service. Peter the Great converted those lands into freeholds, and at the same time bound the proprietors to perpetual service. The Senate called up the young boyars from the country, and allotted civil and military functions to them. In 1736 the period of service was reduced to 25 years, and in 1761 the nobles were allowed the discretion of serving the State or not. As every nobleman had been obliged to serve, so every man that served the Crown acquired nobility through his *chin*, or official rank. The nobility are still styled "courtiers" in the Russian language, and a *chinovnik* is always a nobleman.

An important feature in the social life of Russia is that the right of primogeniture does not exist, except in a few great families. By an ukaz of 1713, Peter I. desired to introduce an inheritance in fee of the eldest son, but this was so much opposed to the customs and traditions of the people that it was abandoned. Peter II. cancelled the ukaz in 1728.

Under the predecessors of Catherine the courtiers had assumed a considerable amount of power, and now demanded a better position in the State. Catherine II. granted them a charter in 1785, by which the nobles of each province were formed into a corporation, with the power of electing judges and various rural officers. They moreover acquired the right of meeting triennially for the discussion of their wants and interests. A property qualification and official rank were required of the members of these assemblies, who were exempted from corporal punishment, compulsory service, and personal taxation. They had already acquired in 1754 the exclusive right of holding serfs. The Emperor Paul annulled this charter, but it was restored by Alexander I.

The vicissitudes of the clergy have been as follows. In ancient Russia they enjoyed many special privileges and the right of administering justice on all Church lands. John IV. prohibited the attachment of land to churches, and sought to make the Metropolitan dependent on his will. The patriarchate was established under his son, but abolished by Peter, who, warned by the example of Nicon, substituted the Holy Synod. The present metropolitans have ecclesiastical jurisdiction only within their several bishoprics or provinces, and are subject to the Synod. Peter the Great considerably limited the power of the clergy. He converted the monasteries into hospitals, and filled them with soldiers. Monks were not

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allowed the use of ink in order that they might not publish libels, and the clergy generally were made amenable to the civil law. Peter the Great also established a scale of fees, to which, in the reign of Nicholas were added regular salaries, the village priest receiving 70 rubles per annum (10*l.*), and his clerk 30 rubles (4*l.* 10*s.*), in addition to a glebe of 33 dessiatinas (about 85 acres). The churches in towns likewise possess houses and other real property, which pay no taxes, but their priests receive no salaries from the State. Catherine II. took away the serfs and lands held by the monasteries. They had acquired no fewer than 900,000 male serfs; the Troitsa monastery alone possessing 100,000. In return, she freed the monks from the liability of quartering troops, from corporal punishment, and from compulsory service. Some of the monasteries were placed in direct dependence on the Holy Synod, and others were left under the control of the several bishops, who were, however, disqualified from depriving a priest of his holy office without the decision of the Synod.

The inhabitants of towns were much improved in their condition under Catherine II. They were not anciently distinct from the agricultural population, and the town lands were held by private individuals. The Tsar Alexis however declared that those lands belonged to the Crown. Peter the Great gave them special courts of law, and generally promoted the welfare of the mercantile classes; the Empress Catherine gave them a charter in 1785, on the model of the nobility charter, with the right of electing mayors and magistrates. The merchants were divided into guilds, and obtained an exclusive privilege of trade. Nothing was, however, done during her reign to remove the evils of serfdom; on the contrary, alarmed at the readiness with which the peasantry joined a formidable insurrection under Pugatchef, the empress placed them still more under the control of the landed proprietors, who were then invested with judicial and executive powers.

Catherine, possessed of great beauty in her youth, preserved the traces of it to the end of her life; in matters of religion she was tolerant from political motives, extravagant in an extraordinary degree, and, with a woman's liberality, paid well those who served her; and, though there are many acts in her reign which cannot be defended, she did more for the civilization of Russia than any of her predecessors. She was succeeded by her son Paul, whose short reign, to 1801, was not of any great historical importance. At his coronation he decreed a law of hereditary succession to the crown in the male line, and afterwards in the female, instead of leaving it to the caprice of the reigning Tsar. The emperor declared war against the French in 1799, sent an army into Italy to oppose the republican generals, and through the intervention of England, Suwaroff, who had been banished from the capital by Paul, was recalled, and placed at the head of it. But the campaign in Italy, successful at first, ended unfavourably to the Russian arms—when the emperor suddenly became a great admirer of Bonaparte; and, with the same inconsistency that exiled Suwaroff, he liberated Kosciusko; subsequently the eccentricity of his actions led to the conclusion that he was of unsound mind. Amongst his ukazes was one against the use of shoe-strings and round hats; and in the

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number of his eccentricities was a rage for painting, with the most glaring colours, the watch-boxes, bridges, and gates throughout the empire. The career of Paul was closed in March, 1801, in a similar manner to that of Peter III., at the castle of St. Petersburg, where he then resided.

Alexander, his eldest son, succeeded to the throne, being then 24 years of age. In the same year he recalled the Siberian exiles, suppressed the secret inquisition, re-established the power of the senate, founded in 1804 the University of Kharkoff, and emancipated the Jews. In 1805 the emperor joined the Northern Powers against France, and on the 2nd December the Austro-Russian army was defeated at Austerlitz. In 1806, Mr. Fox having failed in negotiating a peace between France and Russia, Napoleon overran Prussia, and, Benningsen having evacuated Warsaw, Murat entered that city on the 28th November. On the 26th December the French were beaten at Pultowsk, and in February, 1807, the severely contested battle of Eylau was fought, each side having three times lost and won, the deciding move being made by Benningsen, who took Königsberg by assault. On the 28th of May Dantzig capitulated to the French, and on the 14th of June they won the battle of Friedland; ten days after, Napoleon and Alexander met on a raft moored in the middle of the Niemen, and concluded an armistice, which was a prelude to the treaty of Tilsit, concluded on the 27th July of the same year. Alexander by this act became the ally of France, which enabled the French to carry on their aggressive policy in Spain. But the injury inflicted on Russian commerce by Napoleon's continental system against England, and his interference with Alexander's conquests in Finland in 1809, roused that sovereign to a sense of his true interests. He broke with France, and the invasion of Russia by the French was the consequence. To prepare for and carry on his defence against this, the emperor made peace with the Porte, and re-established his alliance with Great Britain. The operations which took place during this memorable struggle are so well known that they will only be briefly adverted to here.

On the 23rd of June, 1812, the French crossed the Niemen and pushed on to Wilna, the Russians carefully retreating, and leaving Napoleon to pass that river on the 28th, and enter the town unopposed. Here the French emperor remained 18 days, and then, after considerable manœuvring, marched on Vitepsk, where he fully expected to bring the Russians, under Barclay de Tolly, to action. The Russian general, however, declined; and Napoleon, instead of following the advice of his marshals, and wintering on the Dwina, crossed the Dnieper and marched on Smolensk. On the 16th of August he was once more in front of the Russian grand army near that town; but the wary and intelligent De Tolly had occupied it only to cover the flight of its inhabitants, and carry off or destroy its magazines; and on the following morning Napoleon, to his great mortification, learnt that the enemy, in pursuance of his Fabian tactics, was again off. Smolensk was now taken by assault, the last inhabitants that remained having set fire to it before they left. Up to this time the Russian Commander-in-Chief had been able to adhere to his plan of drawing the

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French into the country without risking a general engagement until a favourable opportunity should occur—tactics which were not liked by his army; and Alexander, yielding to the clamour, appointed Kutusoff to the command. The battle of Borodino, sometimes called that of the Moskva, fought on the 1st of September, was the result of this change of leaders. The combatants amounted on either side to about 120,000, and the killed and wounded in both to about 80,000. On the 12th Bonaparte again moved forward, his troops by this time nearly famished, and heartily tired of the war, for the day of Borodino had given them a clear idea that the enemy would yield only after a desperate struggle. On Sunday the 13th the Russian army marched out of the old capital, with silent drums and colours furled, by the Kolomna Gate, and left the city to its fate. In the afternoon of Monday the advanced guard of the French army caught the first view of her golden minarets and starry domes, and the Kremlin burst upon their sight. "All this is yours," cried Napoleon, when he first gazed upon the goal of his ambition, and a shout of "Moscow! Moscow!" was taken up by the foremost ranks, and carried to the rear of his army. In Moscow they bivouacked the same evening. Ere the night had closed in, their leader arrived at the Smolensko Gate, and then learnt, to his astonishment, that 300,000 inhabitants had fled, and that the only Russians who remained in the city were the convicts who had been liberated from the gaols, a few of the rabble, and those who were unable to leave it. On Tuesday, the 15th September, the mortified victor entered Moscow, and took up his residence in the Kremlin; but here his stay was destined to be short indeed, for on the morning of the 16th it was discovered that a fire, which had at first given but little cause for alarm, could not be restrained—fanned by the wind, it spread rapidly, and consumed the best portion of the city. "The churches," says Labaume, "though covered with iron and lead, were destroyed, and with them those graceful steeples which we had seen the night before resplendent in the setting sun; the hospitals, too, which contained more than 20,000 wounded, soon began to burn—a harrowing and dreadful spectacle—and almost all these poor wretches perished!" A few who still survived were seen crawling, half-burnt, amongst the smoking ruins, while others were groaning under heaps of dead bodies, endeavouring in vain to extricate themselves. The confusion and tumult which ensued when the work of pillage commenced cannot be conceived. Soldiers, sutlers, galley-slaves, and prostitutes, were seen running through the streets, penetrating into the deserted palaces, and carrying away everything that could gratify their avarice. Some clothed themselves in rich stuffs, silks, and costly furs; others dressed themselves in women's pelisses; and even the galley-slaves concealed their rags under the most splendid court dresses; the rest crowded to the cellars, and, forcing open the doors, drank the wine and carried off an immense booty. This horrible pillage was not confined to the deserted houses alone, but extended to the few which were inhabited, and soon the eagerness and wantonness of the plunderers caused devastations which almost equalled those occasioned by the conflagration. "Palaces and temples," writes Karamzin, "monuments of art and miracles of luxury, the remains of past ages and those which had been the creation of yesterday, the tombs of

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ancestors and the nursery cradles of the present generation, were indiscriminately destroyed; nothing was left of Moscow save the remembrance of the city, and the deep resolution to avenge its fate."

On the 20th Napoleon returned to the Kremlin from the Palace of Petrofski, to which he had retired, and soon tried to negotiate with Kutusoff, who replied that no treaty could be entered into so long as a foreigner remained within the frontier. The Emperor then requested that he would forward a letter to Alexander. "I will do that," said the Russian general, "provided the word *peace* is not in the letter." To a third proposition, Kutusoff replied that it was not the time to treat or enter into an armistice, as the Russians were just about to open the campaign. At length, on the 19th of October, after a stay of 34 days, Napoleon left Moscow with his army, consisting of 120,000 men and 550 pieces of cannon, a vast amount of plunder, and a countless host of camp followers. And now the picture of the advance was to be reversed. Murat was defeated at Malo-Yaroslavets on the 24th, and an unsuccessful stand was made at Viasma on the 3rd of November. On the 6th a winter peculiarly early and severe, even for Russia, set in—the thermometer sank 18°—the wind blew furiously—and the soldiers, vainly struggling with the eddying snow, which drove against them with the violence of a whirlwind, could no longer distinguish their road, and, falling into the ditches by the side, there found a grave. Others crawled on, badly clothed, with nothing to eat or drink, frost-bitten, and groaning with pain. Discipline disappeared—the soldier no longer obeyed his officer; disbanded, the troops spread themselves right and left in search of food, and as the horses fell, fought for their mangled carcases, and devoured them raw; many remained by the dying embers of the bivouac fires, and, as these expired, an insensibility crept over them which soon became the sleep of death. On the 9th of November Napoleon reached Smolensk, and remained till the 15th, when he set out for Krasnoé. From this time to the 26th and 27th, when the French crossed the Beresina, all was utter and hopeless confusion; and in the passage of that river the wretched remnant of their once-powerful army was nearly annihilated—the exact extent of their loss was never known, but a Russian account states that 36,000 bodies were found in the river alone, and burnt after the thaw. On the 5th of December Napoleon deserted the survivors. On the 10th he reached Warsaw, and on the night of the 18th his capital and the Tuileries. The army that had so well and enthusiastically served him was disposed of as follows:—

Slain in fight	125,000
Died from fatigue, hunger, and the severity of the climate	132,000
Prisoners	193,000
	450,000

The remains of the grand army which escaped the general wreck (independently of the two auxiliary armies of Austria and Prussia, which knew little of the horrors of the retreat) was about 40,000 men, of whom it is said scarcely 10,000 were Frenchmen. Thus ended the greatest military

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catastrophe that ever befell an army in either ancient or modern times. To return to Napoleon. Europe was now exasperated, and combined against him; and though in the following spring he gained the battles of Lutzen and Bautzen, and on the 27th of August that of Dresden, fortune deserted him on the 18th of October of the same year on the field of Leipsic. On the Rhine the Allies offered him peace and the empire of France, which he refused, and on the 31st of March, 1814, Alexander had the satisfaction of marching into Paris at the head of his troops. After the general peace in 1815 the Emperor devoted himself to the internal improvement of his country, making many judicious alterations in the government, in which he evinced much liberality of feeling. He had good abilities, but not brilliant talent, and his greatness of mind was not fully developed till the invasion of his country by the French; this aroused all his energies, and exhibited him to the world conducting himself with consummate discretion and unflinching steadiness of purpose in that alarming crisis. His disposition was kind and generous, his manners mild and amiable, and his moderation prevented him from ever abusing his unlimited power. Under the influence of his mother and the empress, the levity and extravagance of the court were materially repressed. Attended to the last by his wife, he died of erysipelas, in a small and humble dwelling near Taganrog, when on a tour of inspection through the southern provinces of his empire. When the news of his death spread over his vast dominions, he was universally deplored, and the murmur of regret in other countries responded to the grief of Russia.

The subsequent history of Russia is within the memory of the present generation, and we need, therefore, only give a summary of the principal events in chronological order.

Alexander I. was succeeded by the Emperor Nicholas on the 25th December, 1825; Constantine, his elder brother, having married a Polish lady and resigned the crown. The natural order of succession having been broken and Nicholas proclaimed, St. Petersburg became the scene of a military revolution, which was suppressed by the Emperor in person. The troops had been excited to revolt by the members of a wide-spread conspiracy for introducing a constitutional form of government. When the leaders cheered their men on with the cry of *Constitutsia*! the soldiery believed they were fighting for Constantine's wife. This outbreak made a deep impression on the mind of the Emperor, and had great influence on the system of government by which his reign is best known. Nicholas declared war against Persia, which terminated in 1828 by the payment of a large indemnity on the part of the Shah. A war with Turkey followed, and was closed by the Treaty of Adrianople, 1829, by which Russia acquired a considerable augmentation in territory on the coast of the Black Sea and other advantages, in addition to a certain amount of influence in the Danubian principalities. An insurrection broke out in Poland in 1830, and was suppressed, after a hard struggle, in 1831 (*vide* Poland). The territory ceded by the Treaty of Adrianople having included the Caucasus, the Emperor Nicholas had recourse to arms in order to bring the independent races of that mountainous region to submission. By a treaty signed at Constanti-

nople on the 8th July, 1833, between Russia and Turkey, the Porte engaged, in return for the military aid of Russia against the Pasha of Egypt, to close the Dardanelles against all foreign vessels of war. The peace between the Sultan and the Pasha having again been disturbed in 1839, the Ottoman empire was placed, on the 27th July, 1839, under the common safeguard of the five great European Powers, instead of exclusively under the protection of Russia. This was followed by a convention, signed at London on the 15th July, 1840, "for maintaining the integrity and independence of the Ottoman empire, as a security for the peace of Europe." In 1844 the Emperor Nicholas visited England. In 1849 Russia assisted Austria in repressing the Hungarian insurrection. A dispute between the Greek and Latin Churches relative to the guardianship of the Holy Places produced demands on the part of Russia which the Porte refused to admit. Thereupon the Russian troops, amounting to 80,000, entered the Moldo-Wallachian provinces in July, 1853. The combined fleets of England and France entered the Dardanelles on the 14th October, at the request of the Sultan, and on the 1st November Russia declared war against Turkey. The Turks then crossed the Danube, and conducted a campaign against the Russians with much bravery and success. On the 30th November the Turkish fleet was destroyed while at anchor in the harbour of Sinope, notwithstanding the declaration on the part of Russia that she intended only to act on the defensive, and to repel the advance of the Turks into the Principalities. The combined fleet was immediately ordered into the Black Sea, and hopes of a peaceful termination of the difficulty were abandoned. The Russian ambassador quitted London on the 4th February, 1854. France and England declared war against Russia respectively on the 27th and 28th March. Odessa was bombarded on the 22nd April, after an English flag of truce had been fired upon. The 'Tiger' steam-frigate stranded near Odessa, and was captured after an attack by the artillery on land; the flag of one of her boats fell into the possession of the Russians. The allied squadron anchored off Eupatoria on the 13th September, and next day landed their troops at about 12 miles below that town. The battle of the Alma was fought on the 20th September.

The following account of the battle of the Alma is condensed from Lieut.-Col. Hamley's 'Story of the Campaign of Sebastopol:'—

The allied army, having landed, on the 14th Sept., at a place about 12 m. below the town of Eupatoria, commenced its march on the 19th at 7 in the morning. In all, the British mustered 26,000 men and 54 guns; the French 24,000 men and about 70 guns; and the Turks 4500 men, with neither cavalry nor guns. At night the Allies bivouacked on the Bulganak. The next morning, between 9 and 10 o'clock, the army marched onward for about 2 hours under a bright sun. The front of the Allies was oblique, the Turks on the right being about 2 m. in advance of the British left. Surmounting the grassy ridges which formed their horizon, the scene of the coming struggle disclosed itself to them. The plain, level for about a mile, sloped gently down to a village, beyond which was a valley sprinkled with trees, and watered by the river Alma. On the opposite side of the stream the bank rises abruptly into steep knolls, terminating in *plateaux*, behind which rises another and higher range of heights. Both these ranges were occupied by masses of Russian troops, numbering altogether, according to Gen. Todleben.

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33,600 men of all arms and 96 guns. Such was the position in front of the British. In front of the French, who formed the centre of the line, the first range of knolls grew more and more abrupt. These were defended by infantry, and field-artillery were posted, with more infantry, on the plains at the top of the heights.

The French advanced steadily and incessantly, and attacked a small telegraph station on the plain at the top of the heights, and succeeded in planting their flag upon it. During the attack on it, the right of the British had gradually come under the fire of the heavy artillery on the knolls. Pennefather's brigade of the 2nd division, advancing in line along the slope of the plain, lay down near the walls of the village for shelter from the destructive fire of the enemy, and then moved onward to the river; while the light division, passing into the valley, on the left of the second, pressed on until they passed the river, nearly up to their necks, and then began to ascend the slopes beyond, which were held by the Russian battalions.

The battery now in front of them, covered with a thick low bank of earth, swept the whole front of the British, and its fire was crossed by that of the guns from the knolls, which searched the village and ploughed up the plain beyond it. A wide road, bounded by low stone walls, leading to a bridge and a ford, intervened between the 1st and 2nd divisions; and the latter point, being nearly intermediate between the principal lines of fire, was probably the hottest of the cannonade. Many of the 55th fell there, before advancing into the villages. To oppose the Russian fire, some guns were at last brought into action on the opposite bank, and their fire took the Russian centre and guns in reverse, while the French, pressing up the heights, had driven back the left. The Russian artillery now began to retire, soon after followed by covering masses of infantry. It was at this moment that a brigade of the light division, consisting of the 7th, 23rd, and 33rd regts., very gallantly led by Gen. Codrington, advancing up the slope, under a terrible fire of musketry, took a gun from the épaulement or low wall of earth already mentioned; but, with a loss of 600 killed and wounded, the brigade was forced to retire down the slope and re-form under cover of the attack of the first division, which had been led across the river by the Duke of Cambridge to support them. The 7th Fusileers, going up to the breastwork with a cheer, retook and kept possession of the Russian gun; the 33rd and 95th came to the support of the 7th; the 19th and 47th also advanced; and after a terrible slaughter the Russians were driven back. Sir George Brown rode gallantly in front of his light division and fell in front of the battery. The 55th and 30th regts., coming up on the right of the 95th, drove back the enemy on their own front, and the 3 British brigades formed line on the ground they had won.

The battle had thus rolled back to the right rear of the Russians. On the extreme right of their original position, at the top of the heights, was a battery behind an épaulement, with a flank for 7 guns, thrown back to prevent the right being turned. The brigade of Highlanders, under Sir Colin Campbell, being on the left of the British line, formed themselves, when the 1st division crossed the river, directly in front of this battery, which, before it followed the other guns in their retreat, poured upon them during their gallant advance a heavy but ill-directed fire, doing them but little damage. At the top of the hill they met some battalions of the enemy still showing a front, and compelled them to retreat with the loss of a good many men; and two troops of horse-artillery, which had crossed the river higher up, coming into action, played upon the retreating masses with great effect. Thus ended, after a contest of 3 hours, the battle of the Alma.

The retreat was effected in good order, with the loss of 2 guns and Prince Menschikoff's carriage with his

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papers. The loss of the Allies was about 3000 in killed and wounded. Gen. Todleben attributes the loss of the battle mainly to the superior discipline and arms of the Allies.

Prince Menschikoff, having made good his retreat to Sevastopol, caused its fortifications to be strengthened by Todleben, and ordered Admiral Korniloff to sink his squadron in the roadstead. On the 23rd the Allies reached the Katcha and encamped there, without finding the enemy as they had expected. On the 24th they bivouacked near Belbek. Meanwhile Prince Menschikoff had quitted Sevastopol in the night, to proceed with his army to Bakhchisarai by the Mackenzie road, leaving only 16,569 fighting men in garrison, and losing some carriages with baggage and ammunition on the plain. Gen. Todleben is of opinion that neither the *exaltation* of the Russian troops, nor their resolution to fight to the last, would have been able to save Sevastopol if the Allies had attacked it immediately after the passage of the Tchernaya. However that may be, the Allies moved on the 26th September towards the east, in the direction of Mackenzie's farm, and successfully accomplished the manœuvre of transferring the army from the N. to the S. side of Sevastopol.

On the 26th Balaclava harbour was occupied. Sevastopol was attacked by sea and by land on the 17th October. The Light Cavalry charge of Balaclava was made on the 25th October; out of 607 men only 198 returned. While the siege was progressing large reinforcements were pouring into the Russian camp. The Russians attacked the English positions in front of Inkermann on the 5th November, but were compelled to retreat.

'The following account of the battle of Inkermann is likewise condensed from Lieut.-Col. Hamley's 'Story of the Campaign of Sebastopol:'—

During the night of the 4-5th of November the Russians had assembled in force in the valley of the Tchernaya between Inkermann and the harbour. The object of their enterprise, according to General Todleben, was to drive back the right wing of the besiegers and take firm possession of the ground occupied by them between the town and the shore. A force of 18,929 men and 38 guns was to start at six in the morning for 'Careening Bay,' and to be joined by another body of 15,806 men and 96 guns passing over the bridge of Inkermann. On their junction they were to be under the command of General Dannenberg; while Prince Gortschakoff, with 22,444 men and 88 guns, was to support the attack and endeavour to effect a diversion. This plan was not entirely carried out, for the body of 18,929 men proceeded to a different side of the ravine from that originally contemplated, and thus prevented the meditated junction.

At dawn they made their rush upon the advanced posts of the second division posted on the crest looking down into the valley, and which fell back fighting upon the camp behind the crest, 1200 yards in rear. The outposts being driven in, the hill was occupied by the enemy's artillery and guns of position, which commenced a heavy fire down the face of the gentle declivity, crashing through the tents left standing below. Captain Allix, of General Evans's staff, was dashed from his saddle, not far from his own tent, by a round shot, and fell dead. The plan of the Russians was, after sweeping the ridge clear by their heavy concentrated fire, to launch some of their columns over it, while others, diverging to their left after crossing the marsh, were to have passed round the edge of the cliffs opposite Inkermann, and turned the British right. The artillery fire had not continued long before the rush of infantry was made. Crowds of

skirmishers advancing through the coppice came on in spite of the case-shot, and passed within the British line, forcing the artillery to limber up and retire down the slope. Two companies of the 55th, lying down behind a small bank of earth, retreated as the Russians leapt over it, firing as they went back, and halted on a French regiment that was marching up the hill. The Russians retreated in their turn, and the French, with General Pennefather riding in front, went gallantly down the slope under the tremendous fire, driving the enemy before them. Almost simultaneously with this attack on the centre, a body of Russians had passed round the edge of the cliff, and met the Guards there, who had thrown themselves into a two-gun battery on the edge of the slope opposite the ruins of the old castle, with the Grenadiers extending to the right, the Fusiliers to the left, of the battery, and the Coldstreams across the slope towards the British centre. The Russians came on in great numbers with extraordinary determination. The Guards, having exhausted their ammunition, attacked the Russians with the bayonet, and, after losing nearly half their number, were compelled to retire, but, being reinforced, returned and drove the enemy out of the battery.

Four of the guns of Townsend's battery of the fourth division, which came up at the left of the position, were taken by the Russians almost as soon as unlimbered, but some of the 88th and 49th retook them before they had been many seconds in the enemy's hands. In all these attacks on the British right, the Russians were prevented from turning that flank by Codrington's brigade of the light division posted on the further bank of the ravine. When the Russian infantry was driven back, a cannonade recommenced along their whole line, to which the British guns replied warmly, though overmatched in metal and numbers. The ships in the harbour, and the battery at the Round Tower, threw shot and shell on the slope. This cannonade was the preface to another infantry attack, which now again threatened the British right, at that moment absolutely without defence. By advancing resolutely the enemy would have turned it, but the men who had retreated from the low entrenchment already spoken of rallied and lay down under it. Then reinforcements arrived for the support of the remnant of the defenders of the 2-gun battery. These fresh troops at once charged the enemy, routed them, and pursued them to the very verge of the heights, when, returning victorious, they found the battery, as they repassed it, again occupied by Russians, a fresh force of whom had mounted the cliff from the valley. It was while collecting his men to meet this new and unexpected foe that Sir George Cathcart was shot dead.

At this juncture the remainder of Bosquet's division came up on the right, and, passing at once over the crest, threw themselves into the combat, and, fighting side by side with the British troops, pressed the Russians back. A tremendous cannonade was now again opened by the Russians, and replied to by English and French batteries of artillery and two 18-pounders ordered up by Lord Raglan. Between these two opposing fires of artillery, a fierce desultory combat of skirmishers went on in the coppice. Regiments and divisions, French and English, were here mixed, and fought hand to hand with the common enemy. About noon the fire of the Russians slackened, and further French reinforcements took up a position on the hill. The battle was now prolonged only by the efforts of the Russian artillery to cover the retreat of their foiled and broken battalions. At three o'clock the French and English generals, with their staffs, passed along the crest of the disputed hill, and half an hour after the whole force of the enemy retired across the Tchernaya.

Until the arrival of the fourth division and the French, the ground was held by about 5000 British troops, presenting a thin and scattered line, while the body of Russians immediately opposed to them was, according

to General Todleben, 15,000 strong. In all, 8000 English and 6000 French were engaged. The total Russian force, estimated by Lord Raglan at 60,000, is put down by General Todleben at 34,835, of whom 6 generals, 256 officers, and 10,467 rank and file were put *hors de combat*—more than double the loss of the Allies. The loss of the battle is attributed by General Todleben to the want of simultaneity in the advance of the Russians (owing to conflicting arrangements in starting from Sevastopol), the superiority of the French and English small-arms, and the omission of the Russian artillery to follow and support their infantry.

Large trenches were dug on the ground for the dead; the Russians lay apart, the French and English were ranged side by side.

A hurricane destroyed a great amount of shipping in the Black Sea on the 14th November, causing the Allies to suffer considerably from the want of supplies. General Todleben now assumed with much success the direction of the defences of Sevastopol, and soon gained great renown; the Allies in the mean while were repulsed in a naval attack on Petropavlofski, in the Pacific. In 1855 Sardinia joined the Allies with a contingent of 15,000 men. On the 17th February the Russians made a formidable attack on Eupatoria, defended by the Turks under Omer Pasha and by a French detachment, but were obliged to retire with great loss; the intelligence of the repulse reached the Emperor Nicholas but a few days before his death, which took place very unexpectedly on the 2nd March. A conference was soon after opened at Vienna with the object of concluding peace, but after sitting six weeks it was dissolved without any satisfactory result. The war, however, was being actively prosecuted. The second bombardment of Sevastopol was opened at daybreak of the 9th April, 1855, and produced no decisive result. The third bombardment commenced on the 6th June, and was followed next day by successful attacks on the Mamelon and Quarries. General Liprandi having attempted to raise the siege, the battle of the Tchernaya was fought on the 16th August, and resulted in the complete success of the French and Sardinian troops engaged in it. On the 5th September an "infernal fire" was opened by the Allies and kept up until the 8th, when the French stormed the Malakoff and the English the Redan, which was, however, abandoned after an unequal contest of nearly two hours. The French loss on that day amounted to 1489 killed, 4259 wounded, and 1400 missing; and the English to 385 killed, 1886 wounded, and 176 missing; the Russians, according to their own account, losing 2684 killed, 7243 wounded, and 1763 missing. The south side of Sevastopol being no longer tenable, the town was evacuated during the night; the magazines were exploded, the fortifications blown up, and the ships in the harbour sunk. The Allies took possession of the ruins next day. The operations of the Anglo-French squadron in the Baltic consisted, in 1854, of a reconnaissance off Cronstadt by Sir Charles Napier, and a boat action at Gamlé Karbely, in the Gulf of Finland, when the paddlebox-boat of the 'Vulture' drifted on shore and became a prize. The flag of this boat is shown at St. Petersburg, being, together with that of the 'Tiger's' boat, the only English colours preserved in Russia as military trophies. The forts of Bomarsund, on the Aland Islands, were captured on the 15th July, 1854, by a French force of 10,000 men and a small contingent of English marines and seamen. In 1855 the Baltic fleet bombarded Sveaborg and cruised off Cronstadt, under

the command of Admiral Dundas and Admiral Penaud. The war in Asia terminated with the surrender of Kars to General Mouravieff. By the intervention of Austria, preliminaries of peace were agreed upon at a meeting of plenipotentiaries at Paris on the 26th February, 1856, and peace was signed on the 30th March and ratified on the 27th April following. By that treaty the territorial integrity and the independence of the Ottoman empire were recognised and guaranteed. Russia and Turkey mutually agreed not to keep in the Black Sea more than six steam-vessels, of 800 tons at the maximum, and four light steam or sailing vessels, not exceeding 200 tons. The navigation of the Danube was opened to the vessels of all nations, and the Russian frontier in Bessarabia was rectified. No exclusive protection over the principalities of Moldavia and Wallachia was in future to be admitted; and in case of the internal tranquillity of the principalities being menaced, no armed intervention can take place without the general sanction of the contracting Powers.

The Emperor Alexander II. was crowned at Moscow on the 7th September, 1856. His accession was marked by the introduction of vast reforms in the administration. Corruption was prosecuted and punished. The army was reduced to the lowest limits compatible with the dignity and safety of the country, and the term of military service was shortened. Railways were projected and commenced, and commercial and industrial enterprise of every kind was liberally promoted in view of restoring the prosperity of the empire, much impaired by the war. Overtrading, however, induced by an artificial encouragement, added its disastrous effects to financial embarrassment, and assisted in depreciating the currency of the country, no longer metallic. New loans were made, and a system of financial publicity was adopted. But the most glorious monument of the reign of the Emperor Alexander II. will ever be the emancipation of the serfs. Their manumission had been frequently contemplated. The delegates in Catherine II.'s parliament had suggested it; Alexander I. had counsellors who ardently desired to see its abolition, and even the Emperor Nicholas had contemplated a more mitigated form of personal bondage. In 1838 a section of the nobility petitioned for its entire abolition. In 1852 the Minister of the Interior actually drew up a plan of gradual emancipation, which was to have been carried into execution in the spring of 1854. In 1859, the nobility of the province of Lithuania having offered to free their serfs, the Emperor Alexander II. convoked a commission at St. Petersburg, which was charged with the preparation of an act of general emancipation. This was proclaimed on the 3rd March, 1861, when all the serfs (about 23 millions) acquired personal liberty and civil rights. A period of two years was allowed for the appropriation of land to the peasants, who have acquired the "perpetual usufruct" of the houses and plots of ground which they occupied at the time of emancipation; the allotments of land being, however, circumscribed by a scale which varied according to the locality and quality of the soil. The compulsory appropriation to each peasant varied from a minimum of 1 dessiatina (2½ acres) to a maximum of 12 dessiatinas in the steppe districts. In the central parts of Russia the extent of the allotments was, on an average, about 4 dessiatinas (10 acres) to each peasant. Beyond this, the enfranchised serf is permitted to acquire additional lands on terms of mutual agreement with the landed proprietors. Those

terms were regulated by a body of officials, called "Arbitrators of the Peace," who drew up and registered the deeds of sale or lease. The Government in such cases advanced the purchase-money to the peasant by the issue of redemption-bonds, bearing 5 per cent. interest, and is refunded by a series of payments extending over a certain number of years. The communes being responsible, as corporations, to the State for such repayments, their members are circumscribed in their liberty of locomotion until they have paid their share of the heavy liability incurred. It is calculated that the Government will have advanced 300 millions of rubles in these transactions, by which each peasant is enabled to become an independent and considerable landed proprietor. The larger estates of the nobles are in the mean while to a great extent deprived of agricultural labour, and are being very generally thrown out of cultivation or partially farmed out to the peasantry. In the ancient provinces of Poland, since the insurrection which broke out in Poland and Lithuania in 1863, the proprietors are forced by ukaz to cede such portions of additional lands as the peasants may desire to purchase; but the measure has not been applied to Russia Proper. The emancipation was carried out peaceably, with only a few partial agrarian outbreaks, produced chiefly by erroneous interpretations of the law.

Among the many other important reforms which followed the Act of Emancipation we may signalise the introduction of new courts of law on the basis of open trial by jury, which came into operation at Moscow and St. Petersburg during the course of 1865, and in other parts of the empire later. Corporal punishment was abolished in 1863, and the penalty of death is now only inflicted on the sentences of courts-martial in cases of incendiarism and other crimes requiring special measures of repression. The *knut* has entirely disappeared as an instrument of punishment. The disabilities of the Jews have been removed; the commerce of the country, although still retarded in its development by one of the worst Customs Tariffs in Europe, has been relieved of many oppressive regulations, and thrown open to natives and foreigners alike; municipal charters have been conferred on St. Petersburg and Moscow; the liberty of speech and thought denied under the previous reign may now be fully exercised, except in the form of public meetings for political purposes; and the censorship of the press has been reduced to a mitigated form. Public instruction is being vigorously pursued, and education brought within the reach of the humblest. The Universities and superior schools have been remodelled and deprived of their once semi-military character. A classical system of education is being promoted, and the clergy are being raised socially and intellectually. These, and many other wise reforms of the Emperor Alexander II., too numerous and complex here to be specified, form, as it were, the basis of those Representative Institutions with which the edifice of government will sooner or later be crowned.

Among the events in Russian history that have occurred since 1865 may be mentioned the attempt on the life of the Emperor by Karakozoff on the 4-16th April, 1866; the marriage of the Tsesarevitch Alexander with the Princess Dagmar, sister of the Princess of Wales, and the visit to Russia of H.R.H. the Prince of Wales, on the occasion of the marriage, in November, 1866; and the second dastardly attack on the Emperor at Paris, by Bere-

zowski, in June, 1867. His Imperial Majesty was invested with the Order of the Garter by Earl Vane on the 16-28th July, 1867. In 1866 a squadron was sent out by the Government of the U. S. of America, with Mr. Fox as envoy, to convey to H. I. M. the congratulations of the people of the United States on his escape from assassination. This complimentary mission was preceded by the visit of Mr. Atkinson, Mayor of Hull, who delivered to H. I. M. an address on the same occasion, from the Town Council and Chamber of Commerce of Kingston-upon-Hull.

2.—Statistics.

The Area and Population of the Russian Empire are shown in the following Table taken from the Report of the Central Statistical Committee for 1858.

	Sq. Geog. Miles.	Population.		
		Male.	Female.	Total.
Russia in Europe	90,134	29,367,422	29,963,330	59,330,752
Caucasus	8,034	2,247,172	2,061,348	4,308,520
Russia in Asia	262,746	2,163,099	2,067,839	4,230,938
Kingdom of Poland	2,258	2,298,113	2,466,333	4,764,446
Grand Duchy of Finland ..	6,870	818,274	818,275	1,636,549
Total	370,042 or 7,770,882 Eng. sq. m.	36,894,080	37,377,125	74,271,205

It will be seen that the population of Russia is very unequally distributed, being at the rate of 706 inhab. to the sq. m. in European Russia, 524 inhab. in the Lieutenancy of the Caucasus, 16 in Asiatic Russia; while Poland has 2110 inhab. to the sq. m., and Finland 238.

In Russia Proper (about 59 millions) the population professing the Russo-Greek religion numbers about 51 millions; the Dissenters are estimated at about 802,000. The Roman Catholics form a total of 3 millions, the Protestants 2 millions, the Jews 1⅛ million, the Mahomedans 2 millions, and Idolaters about 200,000. The class of nobles, including Government functionaries, is estimated at nearly 900,000; the clergy at 611,000; the inhab. of towns at 4,700,000; the military (including families) at 4 millions; and the peasantry at 49½ millions. The foreigners residing in Russia, irrespective of those who have taken the oath of allegiance to the Emperor, number 86,611.

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The Budget for 1867 anticipated the following revenue and expenditure:—

1. Revenue:

Direct taxes	52½	million roubles.	
Indirect taxes	174¾	„	„
Duties and stamps	12¾	„	„
Royalties (post and telegraph, &c.)	17½	„	„
State domains	63	„	„
Miscellaneous receipts	46¼	„	„
Revenue of the Transcaucasus	3¾	„	„
Portion of Budget of Poland	16½	„	„
Total ordinary revenue	387	millions (53¾*l.* mill. at 33*d.*).	
Extraordinary revenue (loans)	40¾		
Special receipts	16		
Grand total of revenue	443¾	millions (61*l.* mill.).	

This Revenue was to have been expended as follows in 1867:—

Public debt, repayment of, and interest	73¾	million roubles.	
Superior State Departments	1¾	„	„
Church, pay of Clergy, &c.	6¾	„	„
Imperial Household (Civil List)	9	„	„
Foreign Affairs	2½	„	„
Army	120½	„	„
Navy	16¾	„	„
Finance Department—Cost of collecting taxes; pensions, &c.	65½	„	„
State domains	7	„	„
Home Office	15¾	„	„
Public Instruction	7½	„	„
Public Works	22½	„	„
Posts and telegraphs	14½	„	„
Justice	8½	„	„
Audit Office	1¾	„	„
Imperial studs	0½	„	„
Poland	20	„	„
Transcaucasus	4¾	„	„
Total ordinary expenditure	398½	million roubles (54¾*l.* mill.).	
Extraordinary expenditure—			
Construction of railways	25½	„	„
Special expenditure	16	„	„
Anticipated deficit in receipts	4	„	„
Grand total of expenditure	443¾	million roubles.	

From an account of the actual appropriation of the votes taken on the Budgets, published in 1866, for the period between 1832 and 1861, it is apparent that the yearly deficits between the revenue and the expendi-

ture of the Russian Empire are very considerable. The following are the deficits officially shown since 1853:—

1853	51	million roubles.	
1854	123¼	,,	,,
1855	261¾	,,	,,
1856	265¾	,,	,,
1857	38½	,,	,,
1858	5	,,	,,
1859	5¾	,,	,,
1860	51¼	,,	,,
1861	2¼	,,	,,

But the financial expedients to which the Russian Government have had recourse between 1862 and 1866, in order to cover the difference between the ordinary revenue and the gross expenditure, show that the actual deficits for the last five years have not been much under 100 million roubles per annum (about 14 millions sterling).

Russia is divided in matters of education into six districts, with gymnasia and schools, frequented by 1,155,773 scholars. In 1866 the number of scholars in village, parochial, and national schools amounted to 928,000.

3.—Language.

The Russian language belongs to the south-east group of Slavic languages, to which belong also the Bulgarian language (with its obsolete dialect, the ancient or ecclesiastical Slavonian, now the liturgic language of all the Slavonian-speaking followers of the Eastern Church) and the Serbian or Illyric, with its numerous dialects spoken throughout a great part of Turkey, and to a considerable extent in the empire of Austria; while the north-west group of the same family comprehends the Polish, Bohemian, and Lusatian languages, with their dialects. The Russian language presents three dialects—the Little Russian, which is spoken in the south-west provinces of Russia (Volhynia, Kief, Chernigov, Poltava, Kharkof, part of Voronej, Ekaterinoslaf, Kherson, the Taurida, Podolia, and part of Bessarabia); the White Russian dialect, spoken in the provinces of Mohilef and Minsk, in the greater part of those of Vitepsk, Grodno, and Bialostok, and in a small part of the province of Vilna; finally, the Great Russian or Russian proper, which is the official and literary language, as also that of a large majority of the population. The total of the Slavonian-speaking population amounts to 55,600,000, of which more than 35,000,000 use the Great Russian dialect. The difference between these three dialects, however, is not so great as to prevent the people speaking the Little Russian or the White Russian from understanding the Great Russian, so that it may be said that the Russian language is spoken from one end of Russia proper to the other. Even the Pole and the Russian can understand each other to a certain extent.

The Russian language is extremely copious and flexible; its grammatical construction is somewhat complex, and offers many difficulties to a foreigner, owing to the great variety of inflections peculiar to some parts of speech, and to the absence of such other elements of speech as are in other European languages considered quite essential in order to attain precision.

Thus nouns, pronouns, and adjectives, are declinable in seven cases; adjectives have a full and contracted termination; the diminutive, augmentative, and deprecative terminations are next in expression, strength, and grace only to the Italian; but there is no article,—a deficiency which causes great perplexity to a foreigner. Again, the Russian verbs are to a foreigner most difficult of comprehension, for they are quite different in system from anything that exists in the Western languages:—namely, the verb, while denoting in its inflections the numbers, persons, and in some cases even the genders, has only three tenses, and the deficiency of the other tenses is partly made good by so-called modes, which determine the frequent or unfrequent, precise or unprecise mode of an action, partly redeemed by an almost unlimited freedom of inversion, which, however, can afford but little help to one not perfectly conversant with the language.

The Russians have an alphabet different from that used in the rest of Europe. The invention of this alphabet (which is called *Kirillitsa*) is attributed to St. Cyril and Methodius, who lived in the 9th centy., and are considered as the principal apostles of the Christian faith among the Slavonian tribes, and who translated the Holy Scriptures, or at least some parts of them, into their native language; for which purpose they are said to have composed an alphabet, or rather to have adapted the Greek alphabet, with the addition of a certain number of new characters for such sounds as were peculiar to the Slavonian language, and for such as they found no signs in the Greek alphabet. These characters are now only used in printing devotional books. The characters in general use were introduced by Peter the Great; they are the same Cyrillian alphabet, with the omission of a few unnecessary letters, and somewhat remodelled so as to resemble more closely the forms of the Latin characters.

The sounds of the thirty-six letters of which the Russian alphabet is composed are given below in English characters. Throughout this work Russian sounds, absent in the English language, have been rendered by a simple combination of English letters, to be pronounced as in the Italian language: *a* as in *far*, *e* as *a*, *i* as *ee*, *u* as *oo*.

А	а	a,	has the sound of	a	in far.
Б	б	bé	„	b	bay.
В	в	vé	„	v	vale.
Г	г	gé	„	g	gay,
Д	д	dé	„	d	day.
Е	е	e	„	e	met.
Ж	ж	jé	„	z	azure.
З	з	zé	„	z	zeal.
И	и	i	„	e	me.
Й	й	i	„	y	coy.
І	і	i	„	e	me.
К	к	ka	„	k	keen.
Л	л	l	„	l	lay.
М	м	m	„	m	may.
Н	н	n	„	n	nay.
О	о	o	„	o	open.
П	п	p	„	p	pay.
Р	р	r	„	r	ray.
С	с	s	„	s	say.
Т	т,ш	t	„	t	tay.

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У	у	ù	„	oo	book.
Ф	ф	f	„	f	fat.
Х	х	khá	„	h	aspirated.
Ц	ц	tsé	„	ts	in its.
Ч	ч	ché	„	ch	chain.
Ш	ш	sha	„	sh	shade.
Щ	щ	stcha	„	sch	discharge.
Ъ	ъ	yer has no sound—a semi-vowel.			
Ы	ы	yery has something like the sound of e in ble, dle.			
Ь	ь	yer has no sound—a semi-vowel used to soften consonants.			
Ѣ	ѣ	yat } have the sound of a in any.			
Э	э	é }			
Ю	ю	yú	„	u	unit.
Я	я	ya	„	ya	yam.
Ѳ	ѳ	fé	„	f	feet.
V	ѵ	i	„	e	me (seldom used).

The following are a few words and phrases which the traveller may find useful, if pronounced according to the sounds given above.*

The Emperor	*Tsar.*	An island	*Ostrof.*
The Empress	*Tsaritsa.*	A garden	*Sad.*
The Crown Prince	*Tsesarevitch.*	A field	*Polé.*
A Grand Duke	*Veliki Kniaz.*	A cathedral	*Sobor.*
A prince	*Kniaz.*	A church	*Tserkof.*
A count	*Gráf.*	A belfry	*Kolokolnia.*
A noble	*Dvoryanin.*	A cemetery	*Kladbishché.*
Sir or Mr.	*Gospodin.*	Altar-screen	*Ikonostas.*
The head of a village	*Starosta.*	A monastery	*Monastir.*
An employé	*Chinovnik.*	A palace	*Dvorets.*
A peasant	*Krestianin.*	An hotel	*Gostinnitsa.*
Ditto	*Mujik.*	A restaurant	"*Restoran*" or *Traktir.*
The police	*Politsia.*		
A blacksmith	*Kusnets.*	A room at an inn	*Nomer.*
A drosky or sledge-driver	*Isvostchik.*	A dressing room	*Ubornaya.*
		A ladies' room	*Damskaya.*
A coachman	*Kutscher.*	A house	*Dom.*
A postilion	*Yamschik.*	A courtyard	*Dvor.*
A waiter	*Chelovek.*	A villa	*Dacha.*
A porter	*Dvornik.*	A room	*Komnata.*
A water-carrier	*Vodovos.*	A chemist's	*Aptéka.*
A foreigner	*Inostranets.*	The parade-ground	*Platz-parad.*
Chief city	*Stolitsa.*	A barrack	*Kazarma.*
A town	*Gorod.*	A fort	*Krepost* or "*Fort.*"
A street	*Ulitsa.*	A bridge	*Most.*
A cross-street	*Pereúlok.*	A river	*Reka.*
A square	*Ploschad.*	A village	*Derevnia.*
A market	*Rinok.*	A road	*Doroga.*
A row of shops	*Riad.*	A hill	*Gora.*
A shop	*Lafka.*	The bath-house	*Bania.*
A quay	*Naberejnaya.*	A post or railway station	*Stantsia.*
A gateway	*Vorotà.*		
Outer door	*Podyezd.*	The Great Bazaar	*Gostinnoi-Dvor.*

* The best Russian vocabulary is Cornet's. Reiff's 'Manual of the Russian Language,' and it's 'Russian Grammar,' may likewise be consulted. The best dictionary is Reiff's.

The Exchange	*Birja.*
The Embassy	*Posolstvo.*
English Ambassador	*Angliski Posol.*
English Consul	*Angliski Consul.*
American Minister	*Americansky Poslannik.*
American Consul	*Americansky Consul.*
To write	*Pissat.*
Paper	*Bumāga.*
Ink	*Chernila.*
Pen	*Péro.*
Pencil	*Karandash.*
To eat	*Kusshat.*
To drink	*Pit.*
To breakfast	*Zavtrakat.*
Breakfast	*Zavtrak.*
To dine	*Obedat.*
Dinner	*Obed.*
To sup	*Ujinat.*
Supper	*Ujin.*
A portion	*Portsia.*
Soup	*Sup.*
An ice	*Morojennoyé.*
Cabbage soup	*Stchi.*
Pie	*Pirog.*
A roast	*Jarkoé.*
Beef	*Goviadina.*
Veal	*Teliatina.*
Mutton	*Baranina.*
Cutlets	"*Cotelettes.*"
Beefsteak	"*Bifstek.*"
Fish	*Ryba.*
Ham	*Vetchina.*
A fowl	*Kuritsa.*
A chicken	*Tseplênok.*
A hare	*Zaiets.*
A partridge	*Kurapatka.*
Hazel-grouse (*Tetrao bonasia*)	*Riabchik.*
Black cock	*Tetërka.*
Capercailzie	*Glukhar.*
Potatoes	*Kartoffel.*
Peas	*Gorokh.*
Cucumbers	*Ogurtsi.*
Pears	*Grushi.*
Apples	*Yabloki.*
Nuts	*Orekhi.*
White bread	*Belÿ-khleb.*
Black bread	*Chorni-khleb.*
Pancakes	*Blinni.*
Cheese	*Syr.*
Butter	*Maslo.*
Eggs	*Yáitsi.*
Cream	*Slifki.*
Milk	*Moloko.*
Wine	*Vino.*
Corn brandy	*Vodka.*
Beer	*Pivo.*
Coffee	*Koffé.*
Tea	*Chai.*
Sugar	*Sahar.*
Water	*Vodá.*
A glass of water	*Stakan vodi.*
Hot water	*Goriatchei vodi.*
Cold water	*Holodnoi vodi.*
Salt	*Sol.*
Pepper	*Perets.*
Vinegar	*Uksus.*
Mustard	*Gorchitsa.*
A trunk	*Sunduk.*
Portmanteau	*Chemodan.*
Travelling-bag	*Meshok.*
Box or case	*Yaschik.*
A tea-urn	*Samovar.*
A tea-pot	*Chainik.*
A pail	*Vedro.*
A bottle	*Butilka.*
A glass	*Stakan.*
A cup	*Chashka.*
A wine-glass	*Riumka.*
A plate	*Tarelka.*
A knife	*Nojik.*
A fork	*Vilka.*
A spoon	*Loshka.*
A table	*Stol.*
A bed	*Postel.*
Sheets	*Prostiny.*
Pillow case	*Navolotchka.*
An utensil	*Gorshok.*
A stove	*Petchka.*
Fire	*Ogŏn.*
A candle	*Svetchka.*
Matches	*Spitchki.*
A napkin	*Salfetka.*
A duster	*Triapka.*
A hat	*Shliapa.*
A fur cloak	*Shuba.*
An overcoat	*Paletôt.*
A coat	*Surtuk.*
Trousers	*Pantalony.*
A pair of boots	*Sapogi.*
A bath	*Vanna.*
A basin	*Umivalnik.*
A towel	*Polotenzo.*
Soap	*Mylo.*
A dressing-gown	*Khalat.*
Washerwoman	*Pratchka.*
A boat	*Lodka.*
A carriage	*Kareta.*
A cart	*Telega.*
A wheel	*Kolesso.*

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The pole	*Dishlo.*
The wooden arch over the horse's head in a drojky or sledge.	*Dugà.*
A cord	*Veriovka.*
An axe	*Topor.*
A ship	*Korab.*
A steamer	*Parohod.*
A railway	*Jelesnaya, Doroga,* or *Mashìna.*
Fast or express train	*Pospeshny,* or *Potchtovy* (Post) *Poyezd.*
A horse	*Loshad.*
Horses	*Loshadi.*
Hay	*Séno.*
Straw	*Solòma.*
A book	*Knigà.*
A snow-storm	*Viuga,* or *Metel.*

Ice	*Liod.*
Half	*Polovinà.*
A quarter	*Chetvert.*
Great	*Bolshoi.*
Little	*Maloi.*
Beautiful	*Prekrassnoi* (fem. *-aya*).
Old	*Staroi* (fem. *-aya*).
New	*Novoi* (fem. *-aya*).
Father	*Otets.*
Mother	*Mat.*
Brother	*Brat.*
Sister	*Sestra.*
Wife	*Jená.*
Husband	*Mùj.*

Ovitch, or *evitch,* son of—as *Pavel* (Paul), *Pavlovitch.*

Ovna, or *evna,* daughter of—as *Feodor,* *Feodorovna.*

Dialogues.

I am an Englishman	*Ya Anglichanin.*
I am an American.	*Ya Americanets.*
I do not speak Russ.	*Ne govoriù po russki.*
Where does the English / American Consul reside?	*Gdé jiviot Anglisky / Americansky Consul?*
Where is the English Church?	*Gdé Angliskaya Tserkof?*
Good day.	*Sdravstvuité.*
Good night.	*Dobraya notch.*
Good bye.	*Prostchaité.*
Yes	*Da.*
No	*Net.*
Good, very well	*Horosho.*
Not good, not well	*Né horosho.*
Bring	*Prinesi.*
For	*Dlia.*
More	*Estcho.*
Less	*Menshé.*
That	*Etto.*
Enough	*Dovolno.*
Not enough	*Né dovolno.*
Too long	*Otchen Dolgo.*
Give	*Dai.*
Give me	*Dai mné.*
Give us	*Daité nam.*
Now	*Tippér.*
It cannot be done	*Nelzia.*
Do better	*Zdelai lutché.*
If you please.	*Pojalusta.*
Thank you.	*Blagodariu—Spassibo.*
[illegible] is there?	*Khto tam?*
[illegible]ree, sir.	*Sdess.*

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Come here.	*Padi sudi.*
Hollo! here.	*Posiushi.*
I come directly.	*Seichas pridú.*
I hear and obey.	*Slushaiú.*
Directly.	*Seichas.*
Where are my { boots? / clothes?	*Gdé* {*sapoji*? / *platye*?}
Give soap.	*Dai mylo.*
Let us go (on foot).	*Poidem.*
Let us go (in a carriage).	*Poédem.*
Go on.	*Poshol.*
Drive gently.	*Tishé.*
Never mind, or nothing.	*Nichého.*
Hurry quick.	*Skorei.*
Drive faster.	*Poshol skorei.*
Have a care.	*Beregiss.*
Give room, give place.	*Padi, padi.*
To the right.	*Na pravo.*
To the left.	*Na lévo.*
Go further on.	*Poshol dalshé.*
Drive home.	*Domoi.*
Stop.	*Stoi.*
Tell me.	*Skajíte-mné.*
What is it?	*Chto takoé?*
How do they call it?	*Kak zavut?*
What does it cost?	*Chto stoit? Skolko stoït.*
How much the arshin?	*Potchom arshin?*
How much the pound?	*Potchom funt?*
It is dear.	*Eto dorogo.*
It is much.	*Eto mnogo.*
It is cheap.	*Dechevo (dioshevo).*
Can you give change?	*Sdachi yest?*
I don't know.	*Ne znayù.*
Not wanted.	*Ne nado.*
I won't have.	*Ne hochú.*
Is it ready?	*Gotovoli?*
Set the tea-urn.	*Postav samovar.*
Give us a spoon.	*Dai loshkú.*
What's to be done.	*Chto delat?*
What's o'clock?	*Katori chass?*
It is 1 o'clock.	*Teppèr chas.*
It is 2 „	*Teppèr dva chásá.*
It is 3 „	*Teppèr tri chású.*
It is 4 „	*Teppèr chetyré chásá.*
It is 5 „	*Teppèr piat chasof.*
	(The latter termination is used for the remainder of the hours).
Have you a room?	*Yest-li nomer?*
Empty that.	*Oporojni.*
Clean that.	*Chisti.*
Dry that.	*Prosushi.*
In how many hours?	*Cheres skolko chasoff?*
Is it possible?	*Mojnoli?*
Where is the inn?	*Gde Traktir?*
How many versts?	*Skolko verst?*
Where is the landlord?	*Gdé hoziain.*

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Where is my servant?	*Gdé moi chelovek?*
Where is the waiter?	*Gdé chelovek?*
Waiter!	*Chelovek!*
I will pass the night here.	*Zdess nochùyù.*
When do you start?	*Kogda wy uyedété?*
To-day.	*Segodnia.*
To-morrow.	*Zavtra.*
In an hour.	*Cheres chass.*
It is time to be off.	*Pora yéhat.*
Bring the bill.	*Prinessi schot.*
The bill is too heavy.	*Schot slishkom velik.*
It must be reduced.	*Nado sbavit.*
Bring cold / hot water.	*Prinessi vodi holodnoi. / gorùchai.*
Which is the way to ——?	*Katoroi darogoi mné itti ——?*
Pray show me the way.	*Proshu pokasat mné darogù.*
What kind of a road is it?	*Kakova daroga?*
Are the horses to?	*Zapriajini-li-loshadi?*
What is to pay for them?	*Skolko progon?*
Drink money.	*Na vodká.*
Tea money.	*Na Chai.*
I will give you drink money.	*Dam na vodkú.*
I will not give you drink money.	*Nedam na vodkú.*
What will you charge? (To a droshky or sledge driver).*	*Za skolko?*
No, I shall only give 20c., &c.	*Net, Dvadsat kopeck, ġc.*
What station is it?	*Kakaya Stantsia?*
How long do we stop?	*Skolko minut?*
Where is the refreshment-room?	*Gdé Buffet?*
Where is the W. C.?	*Gdé Otkhojié mesto?*
Where is the telegraph-office?	*Gdé telegraph?*
Where is the luggage?	*Gdé bagaj?*
The luggage is lost.	*Bagaj potérian.*
Give me a ticket.	*Daité mné billet.*
First class.	*Pervi class.*
Second class.	*Vtoroi class.*
Smoking compartment.	*Kuritelnoyé Otdélénié.*
Is smoking allowed?	*Kurit mojno?*
Can horses be obtained at the station to go to ——?	*Mojno-li loshádéi dostat na Stantsii chtob yehat v ——?*
How far is —— from the station?	*Daleko-li —— ot Stantsii?*
How far can I book?	*Do kotoroi Stantsii mogù poluchit billet?*
I wish to telegraph.	*Hochú telegraphirovat.*
To the station master.	*Nachalniků Stantsii.*

Names of the Months, Days of the Week, &c.

January	*Janvar.*	May	*Mai.*
February	*Fevrail.*	June	*Iün.*
March	*Mart.*	July	*Iül.*
April	*Aprel.*	August	*Avgust.*

* In engaging a droshky or sledge driver, it is merely necessary to mention the name of the street, square, &c., with the addition of the question *skolko*—how much? A bargain then ensues, which generally terminates in the driver running after the traveller with the words *Xolti, pajaluité*—"Very well, come in."

September	*Sentiabr.*	Sunday	*Voskresenié.*
October	*Oktiabr.*	Winter	*Zima.*
November	*Noiabr.*	Summer	*Léto.*
December	*Dekabr.*	A year	*Gód.*
Monday	*Ponedelnik.*	A month	*Mesiats.*
Tuesday	*Vtornik.*	A week	*Nedelia.*
Wednesday	*Séréda.*	A day	*Den.*
Thursday	*Chetverg.*	An hour	*Chass.*
Friday	*Piatnitsa.*	Half an hour	*Polchassa.*
Saturday	*Subota.*		

THE NUMERALS.

one, *odin.*	twenty-one, *dvatzat-odin.*
two, *dvā.*	twenty-two, *dvatzat-dvā;*
three, *tri.*	And so on, always adding the unit up
four, *chetiri.*	to ten, and then
five, *piat.*	thirty, *tritsat.*
six, *shest.*	forty, *sorok.*
seven, *sem.*	fifty, *piatdesiat.*
eight, *vosem.*	sixty, *shesdesiat.*
nine, *deviat.*	seventy, *semdesiat.*
ten, *deciat.*	eighty, *vosemdesiat.*
eleven, *odin-natzat.*	ninety, *devianosto.*
twelve, *dvé-natzat;*	one hundred, *sto.*
And so on, always adding *natzat* to	five hundred, *piatt sot.*
each number up to	one thousand, *tissiatcha.*
twenty, *dvatzat.*	

4.—LITERATURE.

The modern literature of Russia dates, as almost everything else in modern Russia, from the political and intellectual reforms effected by Peter the Great. After the liberation of Russia from the Mongol yoke, which had for several centuries completely arrested the intellectual development of the Russian nation, the Muscovite Government and the more enlightened citizens became conscious of the necessity of restoring science and art. The task was a difficult one. They could no longer look to Constantinople, from whence at an earlier epoch Russia had received the first rudiments of Christian civilization; science and art had fled from Byzantium to the West of Europe; and from immediate intercourse with these, Russia was shut out by her geographical position, and still more perhaps by difference of religion and by the animosity of powerful neighbours. Polish letters were the only channel through which Western civilization exercised some amount of influence on Muscovy. Indeed, at Kief and in several other cities in the Russian provinces then incorporated with Poland, schools were established, where classical studies were conducted on the same plan as in the West. In these schools were formed most of the writers of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, and even later, many of the contemporaries of Peter the Great, among whom we will only name the most zealous partizan of reform, the Archbishop Theophanes Procopovitch. These schools were also taken as a model for the first classical school established at Moscow,

under the name of the Latino-Greco-Slavonian Academy. It is from Poland also that the first essays of a drama were introduced into Russia, in the form of miracle plays, which, from the ecclesiastical schools of Kief, Wilna, and Moscow, penetrated into the houses of some rich boyars, and even into the palace of the Tsar. But although the influence of Poland and of Polish letters on the literature of Russia cannot be denied, there were two circumstances which did not allow it to be so great or so beneficial as might have been expected: firstly, Polish letters were then in a complete decline, owing to the lifeless scholasticism introduced by the Jesuits, under whose sway society had fallen; secondly, the obstinate efforts made by the Roman Catholic aristocracy and clergy to bring the Russian subjects of the republic within the pale of the Church of Rome, produced a violent struggle and engaged all the best intellects of the country in religious controversy. The printing offices of Kief, Wilna, Lemberg, &c., on which the reading public of Muscovy chiefly depended for books (the printing office established at Moscow being appropriated almost exclusively to the use of the Church and the Government), produced scarcely anything except devotional books and controversial tracts. Thus Polish influence not only failed to free the literature of Russia from its most exclusively devotional and ecclesiastical character, but, on the contrary, strengthened it in that direction. A more direct communication with the civilised world alone could have put an end to that state of things, and have roused the nation from its secular intellectual slumber. This was felt by some of the Tsars of Moscow, and they tried to undertake the task. Boris Godunof sent young noblemen to study abroad; he is even said to have contemplated the establishment of a university at Moscow. In general, however, these efforts of the Tsars were of a very timorous nature, and they were frequently frustrated by the animosity of jealous neighbours. Many instances are recorded of professional men, engaged for the service of the Tsar, having been prevented by the Polish or Livonian authorities from proceeding on their way to Moscow. At length Peter the Great did in a violent way what his predecessors had been unable to do by milder means. He broke through the wall which had hitherto separated Russia from Western Europe, and forced his nation into the main channel of European civilization. In the execution of this plan he exhibited the same restless activity, the same faculty of taking an interest in the most minute details of a scheme, which he showed in his other acts. Not content with issuing general measures for the diffusion of knowledge among his subjects, with erecting new schools and reforming old ones, with preparing the plan of an academy of sciences (which was however opened only after his death), he also found leisure to choose the books that were to be translated (generally elementary books of science), and sometimes to revise translations and to inspect their printing. It is even related that he corrected the proofs of early numbers of the first newspaper published by his orders at Moscow in 1703.

The first classical writer and reformer of letters in Russia was Lomonossof, the son of a fisherman at Archangel, who flourished in the reign of the Empress Elizabeth, a man remarkable for the universality of his genius and acquirements. Having left his home as a boy of seventeen, he studied first at Moscow and Petersburg, and finally at the universities of Germany; on his return to Petersburg he was appointed professor of chemistry to the

Academy of Sciences, and devoted his whole life to the promotion of science and letters in his country. He was not a poet in the modern and stricter acceptation of the word; and his odes, his tragedies, and his unfinished epic poem are little more than clever and well-written imitations of German and French models. However, he is not quite undeservedly considered as the creator of the modern poetry of Russia, for it is he who banished the clumsy syllabic verse which had been introduced from Poland, and replaced it by the tonical prosody which is used until now, and which has proved so congenial to the Russian language. He also rendered great services to the language by rejecting from it, although not completely, numerous ecclesiastical Slavonian expressions and forms which had crept in under the influence of ecclesiastical writers, and by tracing a line of separation between the two languages. But his most important right to the gratitude of his country is his having been an indefatigable champion of science; he was alternately grammarian, philologist, historian, chemist, natural philosopher, metallurgist, statistician, and worker in mosaic; his name appears in the beginning of almost every branch of knowledge and art; he was, to use the words of a great writer of more recent date, "the only promoter of science in Russia in the period between Peter the Great and Catherine II."

At a time when the whole of Europe was under the influence of the artificial pseudo-classical school of France it is not surprising that Lomonossof submitted to the same sway, and that his example engaged in the same direction a host of less gifted writers, with whom literature became a mere rhetorical exercise, a childish aping of French models. A profusion of epics, tragedies, odes, &c., appeared every day, and Russia in the raptures of her newly won civilisation, boasted already of possessing her own Corneilles and Racines, Virgils and Voltaires, whose works, however, can now scarcely be got through, even by those who devote themselves to the historical study of literature, if we except Derjavin, the first Russian poet of eminence, whose odes and other lyrics, although not free from the rhetorical bombast which was then held to be poetry, present many flashes of a genius powerful and truly poetic, and which will save his works from oblivion, notwithstanding their many defects. Satire and comedy were the only kinds of literature at that time, and these, although strictly imitative in their forms, were of some originality as to their contents. The comedies of Von-Wisin, those of the Empress Catherine II., the satirical essays of Novikof and his imitators, the fables of Khemnitzer, are until now read with pleasure as interesting illustrations of the manners and ideas of their epoch. Von-Wisin's comedy of 'The Minor' still appears on the stage from time to time.

A new period in the literature of Russia begins with Karamzin. In one sense he may be called the continuator of Lomonossof's reforms, for, while he still more strictly separated the vernacular Russian from the Slavonian language, he also banished the heavy Latin phraseology introduced by Lomonossof, and replaced it by the more simple and natural construction of modern languages. He thus created in Russia an elegant literary style adapted to the wants of modern civilization. On the other hand, he abandoned the pompous rhetoric of his predecessors, and introduced the sentimentality which was in such vogue in Europe at the end of the eighteenth and in the beginning of the present century. By his periodicals,

in which he published his 'Letters of a Traveller' (a lively and brilliant description of his tour through Europe), sentimental tales, original as well as translations, and popular scientific and critical essays, he more than any other writer contributed to spread a taste for reading among the public. In the task of popularising literature he was much assisted by Dimitrief, who did for the language of poetry what Karamzin had done for prose writing. A further step in this direction was taken by Krylof, whose fables are equal to any similar productions in other countries, and are justly considered as most perfect models of elegant and idiomatical language. A similar style is met with in Griboyedof's comedy 'Sorrow comes from Wit,' a most telling satire on the society of Moscow, which was greedily read and learnt by heart many years before it was allowed by the censor to appear on the stage or in print. Great influence on the literature of Russia was exercised by Jukovski, who, by his masterly translations of some contemporary English and German poets, introduced into Russia the then arising romantic school of poetry. At the same time Martinof, by his translations of Greek classics, and especially Guaditch, by his able translation of the 'Iliad,' gave to their countrymen a more correct idea of the true character of classical poetry.

But the great national poet of Russia is Pushkin. His works are very numerous and varied. After having been an imitator of Byron in some of his earlier poetical tales ('The Prisoner of the Caucasus,' 'The Fountain of Bakhchisarai,' 'The Gipsies'), he exhibited in his more mature works a truly original and national genius, which fully justified the admiration which is paid to him by his countrymen. His poetical novel ('Evgheni Oneghin'), a tale of a Russian *homme blasé*, offers lively and interesting pictures of provincial and metropolitan life in Russia. His 'Boris Godunof' is a magnificent historical drama, after the model of Shakspere's plays, representing Russia at the highly interesting time of the appearance of the first false Demetrius. Among his other works we shall only point out his poem 'Poltava,' some fine dramatic sketches ('The Stone Guest,' 'Mozart and Salieri,' 'The Covetous Knight'), and a delicious story in prose, 'The Captain's Daughter,' presenting a picture of provincial life in Russia at the time of the Pugatchef rebellion. A great number of Pushkin's lyric pieces recommend themselves as well by vigour of thought and deep feeling as by elegance of style and melody of verse. Lermantof holds the next place after Pushkin in the consideration of his countrymen, and, indeed, although he died before his talent had come to full maturity, the vigour of thought and passion, and the strength of expression, which unite in his poetry with an exquisite harmony of versification, would undoubtedly have gained him a prominent position in any literature.

Of other modern poets, the most remarkable are Baratinski, Yazikof, Khomiakof, Countess Rostopchin, the peasant poets Koltsof and Nikitin. Among living poets we may mention Maikof, Stcherbina, Nekrassof (a most bitter satirist), Polonski, and Count A. Tolstoi, author of an historical drama, 'The Death of John the Terrible,' which has had a great success on the stage.

A writer whose popularity and whose influence on the literature of his country are equal, if not even superior, to those of Pushkin, is Gogol, the great humourist of Russia, a man who possessed to a high degree the art, to use his own expression, of "laughing a laugh under which are bitter tears;"

to analyse "the mud of trifling things with which life is shackled; to expose the triviality and meanness of life and of man,"—such is the usual theme of his works, and this theme he realizes with striking truth and inexhaustible humour. His chief works are a comedy, 'The Revisor,' which holds permanent possession of the stage, and is considered as the best comedy in the Russian language, and a tale entitled 'The Dead Souls,' of which an English translation has been published.

As almost all the modern poets of Russia are more or less indebted to Pushkin, so the influence of Gogol may be traced in a greater or smaller degree in almost all the branches of Russian novel-writing. The modern novel-writers who hold the highest place are Turguenief, Gontcharof, Pisemski, Dostoievski, and Count A. Tolstoi.

The writing of historical novels, which had been quite abandoned for some years, has been resumed by Count A. Tolstoi, who has published an historical romance describing the epoch of John the Terrible, and by Count L. Tolstoi, whose romance entitled 'War and Peace' purports to represent the social life of Russia during the first quarter of the present century.

Of modern comedies those of Ostrovski alone deserve to be mentioned.

Scientific literature can be but poor in a country where science has been introduced so recently, and where, until of late years, literature has been under the control of rigorous censors. The history of Russia is almost the only branch of science in which some remarkable original works are to be found. The first, most celebrated historian in Russia is Karamzin, who, in his 'History of the Russian State,' gave for the first time a true work of science and art, and not, as his predecessors Tatischef and Prince Stcherbatof, a crude and clumsy digest of the old chronicles and annals. Notwithstanding the progress made by historical investigation since it was first published, his work is until now not only widely read by the general public, but even studied and considered as a book of reference by every writer on national history. Among the numerous more modern historical writers, we shall only name Polevoi Solovief (Professor at Moscow, whose work is now considered the best history of Russia), Ustrialof (author of a very detailed history of Peter the Great, of which only a few volumes have as yet been published), Kostomarof (author of several historical works on Little Russia before its incorporation with Russia, on the ancient municipal constitutions of Novgorod and Pskof, on the false Demetrius, &c.), Beliayef, Stchapof (author of a good work on the Russian dissenters); Miliutin, Minister of War, author of a work on the Italian campaign of Suwarof, and Bogdanowitch (a history of the war of 1812).

Until a very recent period, all the other branches of scientific literature were almost exclusively (and even now are to a great extent) supplied by translations from foreign languages. It was in the reign of Catherine II., whose influence on the intellectual development of the Russian people was very marked, that translations began to be cultivated. They continued with great activity during the first part of the reign of Alexander I.; but in the last years of his reign this activity was arrested by a sudden increase of the severity of the censorship, which, far from abating in the reign of Nicholas, grew at last to such a system of censorial terror, that not even the most innocent novel could be translated without considerable mutilations. Under the more liberal system which has been inaugurated during the present reign translations are again published with great activity. The

works of Macaulay, Buckle, Adam Smith, J. Stuart Mill, and many other standard English works, may now be read in the Russian language.

The present period is marked by a cultivation of political writing, most of the intellect of the country being absorbed in administrative reforms. The political economists and statists form a comparatively small school, but are nevertheless well known to the scientific societies of Europe. The newspapers employ a very considerable number of writers. The foremost journal is the 'Moscow Gazette,' with a circulation of about 15,000. The only other newspaper of any note at Moscow is the 'Moscow,' supported by the Panslavist and Protectionist parties. At St. Petersburg each minister of state has his organ. The 'Journal de St. Petersbourg' is the mouthpiece of the Imperial Foreign Office. Of the monthly magazines the most important are the 'Moscow Herald,' conducted by Mr. Katkof, and the 'Herald of Europe,' conducted by Mr. Stassulevitch. The scientific publications of the War Office and Admiralty, and the Reports of the Minister of Public Instruction, are of high interest. The several scientific societies of Russia publish journals, whose valuable contents are almost entirely lost to Western Europe, owing to the language in which they are edited.

Although the periodical press is no longer subject to a preventive censorship, yet it is far from being free: it is under the control of the Minister of the Interior, and the system of *avertissements* and *suspensions*, which has been borrowed from France, weighs somewhat heavily upon it.

5.—Measures, Weights, and Coins.

Measures of Length.

	dium	= 1 inch Eng.	= 0·0254 metre.
12	dium	= 1 foot „	= 0·3048 „
	vershok	= 1·75 inch Eng.	
16	vershoks	= 1 arshin = 28 inches Eng.	
3	arshins	= 1 sajen or fathom = 7 feet Eng. (N.B. a nautical sajen has 6 feet).	= 2·1336 metres.
500	sajens	= 1 verst = 0·66 or ⅔ mile Eng.	= 1·0668 kilom.
2400	sq. sajens	= 1 desiatina = 2·86 acres Eng.	

Measures of Capacity.

	shtof	= ⅛ vedro.
8	shtofs	= 1 vedro = 3·25 galls. wine, and 2·66 galls. beer measure Eng. = 0.1230 hectolitre.

Dry Measure.

	garnets	= 0·34 peck Eng.
8	garnets	= 1 chetverik = 2·73 pecks or 68 bushel Eng.
8	chetveriks	= 1 chetvert or quarter = 5·46 bushels Eng.

Weights.*

1	zolotnik	= 2·41 drams avoirdupois = 4265 milligrammes.
96	zolotniks	= 1 funt = 14·43 ozs. avordupois, or 0.40952 kilo.
40	pounds	= 1 pùd = 36·08 lbs. „ „ 19 kilo. 372.
10	puds	= 1 berkovets = 360·80 lbs. „ „ 163 „ 720.

* The principal weights and measures will probably soon be decimalized on the basis of the metrical system.

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Coins.—The coinage of Russia is decimal; thus—100 copecks make 1 ruble. The ruble, of which the standard is silver, contains about 18 grs. of pure silver, and an alloy of about 13 per cent., or 83⅓ in 96. Its par value in English money is 38$\frac{3}{41}$*d.*, but the rate of exchange has occasionally lowered it to 25*d.*

The only silver money in circulation are pieces of 20, 15, 10, and 5 copecks. The intrinsic value of these coins was reduced by 12 per cent. in 1860. The copper tokens range between 1 and 5 cops.

The lower classes, particularly in the interior of Russia, still speak of the "Grivna," an old coin of the value of 10 cop. Thus, "Grivennik" is 10 cop., and "Dvugrivinny" 20 cop.

Taken at par the sovereign is worth 6 rs. 28 cops., and the shilling 31 cops; but the rate of exchange enhances their nominal value in paper currency.

The paper-money in circulation is inconvertible, but has a forced currency. The notes represent 100 rubles; 50 rs., 25 rs., 10 rs., 5 rs., 3 rs., and 1 ruble, and are plainly stamped with their value. Those recently issued are very elaborate in design, and bear portraits of Russian sovereigns.

The Treasury Bonds are for 50 rs., and bear 4½ per cent. interest. Russian paper-money may now be freely exported and imported.*

EXAMPLE to find the value of 50 rubles Russian money in British sterling, at the rate, say, of 32*d.* to the ruble:—

Ruble.		Pence.		Rubles.
1	=	32	×	50
		50		
		12)1600		
		20)133 4		
		Answer £6 13 4		

or 50*l.* in Russian rubles at the same rate:—

Pence.		Copecks.		Pence.		
32	=	100	×	12,000	=	£50
				100		
		32)1,200,000(375.00				
		96				
		240				
		224				
		160				
		160				
		000		*Answer* R. 375.00 Cop.		

* Travellers will receive the current value of their money in Russian rubles, and vice versâ, at the frontier stations at Wirballen and Eydkuhnen. It is, however, best to carry only the amount strictly requisite, and to keep the rest in circular notes, or with a banker at St. Petersburg or Moscow.

The value of a sovereign in Russian money, at the exchange of 32*d.*, will be found thus:—

Pence. Copecks. Pence.
32 = 100 × 240 = 20*s.*
240

32)24,000(7,50
224

160
160

0

Answer Rs. 7.50.

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Tables for the Conversion of Russian Weights and Measures into English Equivalents, at the Par and Average Rates of Exchange.

Table I.—Price per Arshin converted into English equivalent per yard.

1 Arshin = 28 inches. 1 Rouble = 38*d.* or 32*d.*

Rs.		At 38*d.*	At 32*d.*	Cop.		At 38*d.*	At 32*d.*
		Per yard. *s.* *d.*	Per yard. *s.* *d.*			Per yard. *s.* *d.*	Per yard. *s.* *d.*
5	Per Arshin, equal to	20 4	17 2	40	Per Arshin, equal to	1 7	1 4½
4	,, ,,	16 3	13 9	35	,, ,,	1 5	1 2½
3	,, ,,	12 2	10 3	30	,, ,,	1 3	1 0½
2	,, ,,	8 1	6 10	25	,, ,,	1 0	0 10½
1	,, ,,	4 0	3 5	20	,, ,,	0 10	0 8½
Cop.				15	,, ,,	0 7	0 6
95	,, ,,	3 10	3 3	10	,, ,,	0 5	0 4
90	,, ,,	3 8	3 1	9	,, ,,	0 4	0 3¾
85	,, ,,	3 6	2 11	8	,, ,,	0 3½	0 3¼
80	,, ,,	3 3	2 9	7	,, ,,	0 3½	0 2¾
75	,, ,,	3 1	2 7	6	,, ,,	0 3	0 2½
70	,, ,,	2 10	2 5	5	,, ,,	0 2½	0 2
65	,, ,,	2 7	2 3	4	,, ,,	0 2	0 1½
60	,, ,,	2 5	2 1	3	,, ,,	0 1½	0 1¼
55	,, ,,	2 3	1 11	2	,, ,,	0 1	0 0¾
50	,, ,,	2 0	1 8½	1	,, ,,	0 0½	0 0½
45	,, ,,	1 10	1 6½				

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Table II.—Price per Poud converted into English equivalent per cwt.

1 Poud = 36·08 lbs. Avoird. 1 Rouble = 38*d.* or 32*d.*

Rs.		At 38*d.*	At 32*d.*	Cop.		At 38*d.*	At 32*d.*
		Per cwt.	Per cwt.			Per cwt.	Per cwt.
		£. *s.* *d.*	£ *s.* *d.*			*s.* *d.*	*s.* *d.*
30	Per Poud, equal to	14 14 10	12 8 4	60	Per Poud, equal to	5 11	5 0
20	,, ,,	9 16 7	8 5 6	55	,, ,,	5 5	4 7
10	,, ,,	4 18 3	4 2 9	50	,, ,,	4 11	4 2
9	,, ,,	4 8 5	3 14 6	45	,, ,,	4 5	3 9
8	,, ,,	3 18 8	3 6 2	40	,, ,,	3 11	3 4
7	,, ,,	3 8 10	2 18 0	35	,, ,,	3 5	2 11
6	,, ,,	2 19 0	2 9 8	30	,, ,,	2 11½	2 6
5	,, ,,	2 9 1	2 1 5	25	,, ,,	2 5½	2 1
4	,, ,,	1 19 2	1 13 1	20	,, ,,	1 11½	1 8
3	,, ,,	1 9 6	1 4 9	15	,, ,,	1 6	1 3
2	,, ,,	0 19 8	0 16 6	10	,, ,,	1 0	0 10
1	,, ,,	0 9 9	0 8 3	9	,, ,,	0 11	0 9
Cop.				8	,, ,,	0 9½	0 8
95	,, ,,	0 9 4	0 7 10	7	,, ,,	0 8	0 7
90	,, ,,	0 8 10	0 7 5	6	,, ,,	0 7	0 6
85	,, ,,	0 8 4	0 7 0	5	,, ,,	0 6	0 5
80	,, ,,	0 7 10	0 6 7	4	,, ,,	0 5	0 4
75	,, ,,	0 7 5	0 6 2	3	,, ,,	0 3½	0 3
70	,, ,,	0 6 10	0 5 9	2	,, ,,	0 2½	0 2
65	,, ,,	0 6 5	0 5 5	1	,, ,,	0 1½	0 1

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TABLE III.—Price per Russian pound converted into English equivalent per pound Avoird.

1 Russian lb. = 14·43 oz. 1 Rouble = 38*d.* or 32*d.*

Rs.		At 38*d.*	At 32*d.*	Cop.		At 38*d.*	At 32*d.*
		Per lb. Avoir.	Per lb. Avoir.			Per lb. Avoir.	Per lb. Avoir.
		s. *d.*	*s.* *d.*			*s.* *d.*	*s.* *d.*
5	Per Russian lb., equal to	17 6	14 9	45	Per Russian lb., equal to	1 7	1 4
4	,, ,,	14 0	11 10	40	,, ,,	1 5	1 2
3	,, ,,	10 6	8 10	35	,, ,,	1 3	1 0½
2	,, ,,	7 0	5 11	30	,, ,,	1 0¾	0 10½
1	,, ,,	3 6	2 11	25	,, ,,	0 10½	0 8¾
Cop.				20	,, ,,	0 8½	0 7
95	,, ,,	3 4	2 10	15	,, ,,	0 6½	0 5¼
90	,, ,,	3 2	2 8	10	,, ,,	0 4	0 3½
85	,, ,,	3 0	2 6	9	,, ,,	0 3¾	0 3¼
80	,, ,,	2 10	2 4	8	,, ,,	0 3⅜	0 2¾
75	,, ,,	2 8	2 2	7	,, ,,	0 3	0 2½
70	,, ,,	2 6	2 1	6	,, ,,	0 2½	0 2¼
65	,, ,,	2 4	1 11	5	,, ,,	0 2	0 1¾
60	,, ,,	2 1	1 9	4	,, ,,	0 1⅝	0 1½
55	,, ,,	1 11	1 7½	3	,, ,,	0 1¼	0 1
50	,, ,,	1 9	1 6	2	,, ,,	0 0¾	0 0¾
				1	,, ,,	0 0½	0 0¼

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TABLE IV.—Table for the conversion of Russian coins into English equivalents at the par and average rates of exchange.

Rs.		At 38*d.*			At 32*d.*			Cop.		At 38*d.*		At 32*d.*	
		£	*s.*	*d.*	£	*s.*	*d.*			*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*
100	Equal to	15	16	8	13	6	8	100	Equal to	3	2	2	8
90	,,	14	5	0	12	0	0	90	,,	2	10	2	5
80	,,	12	13	4	10	13	4	80	,,	2	6	2	1½
70	,,	11	1	8	9	6	8	70	,,	2	3	1	10
60	,,	9	10	0	8	0	0	60	,,	1	11	1	7
50	,,	7	18	4	6	13	4	50	,,	1	7	1	4
40	,,	6	6	8	5	6	8	45	,,	1	5	1	2
30	,,	4	15	0	4	0	0	40	,,	1	3	1	1
20	,,	3	3	4	2	13	4	35	,,	1	2	0	11¼
10	,,	1	11	8	1	6	8	30	,,	0	11½	0	9½
9	,,	1	8	6	1	4	0	25	,,	0	9½	0	8
8	,,	1	5	4	1	1	4	20	,,	0	7½	0	6½
7	,,	1	2	2	0	18	8	15	,,	0	5¾	0	4¾
6	,,	0	19	0	0	16	0	10	,,	0	3¾	0	3¼
5	,,	0	15	10	0	13	4	5	,,	0	2	0	1½
4	,,	0	12	8	0	10	8						
3	,,	0	9	6	0	8	0						
2	,,	0	6	4	0	5	4						
1	,,	0	3	2	0	2	8						

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6.—Passport Regulations.

By an ukaz of the 31st December, 1864, foreigners arriving in Russia, either by sea or by land, with passports duly *viséd* at one of the Imperial Embassies, Legations, or Consulates (in London, 32, Great Winchester-street, City), may reside in any part of Russia, and travel throughout the empire, with the same passport for the term of 6 months. The passport must be exhibited on arrival to the local authorities (through the hotel-keeper, to avoid inconvenience), who will register it. Should the traveller desire to stay longer than 6 months, a regular passport for residence must be applied for at the Alien Office. Travellers who have not stayed in Russia beyond the term of 6 months may leave the empire, by sea or by land, with their national passports, after a second *visa* by the authorities to the effect that there is no impediment to their leaving the country. The latter regulation is intended to prevent the absconding of debtors, or of parties in a criminal or civil suit, before the verdict of the Court.

Obs.—The principal formality which the traveller has therefore to observe is, to have his passport *viséd* by a Russian diplomatic or consular official. The rule applies equally to Finland and Poland. The passport regulations are now more strictly applied than ever, particularly at St. Petersburg, notwithstanding that in every other country on the Continent the passport system, so obnoxious to the modern traveller, is almost entirely abolished. Tourists should keep this in mind, for any neglect of the Russian regulations is visited with severe discomfort, if with nothing more.

7.—Custom-Houses.

Travellers will meet with every civility at the hands of the Russian Custom-house officers. Although the tariff is still highly protective, persons evidently travelling for pleasure, and not for the purposes of trade, are very little molested by the search for articles liable to duty. There has hitherto been some difficulty in passing books, maps, guides, and other products of the press, but a recent regulation permits the introduction of all such printed works as Continental travellers are in the habit of carrying with them, excluding the publications of the Russian revolutionary press in London and elsewhere. Travellers are cautioned against introducing the latter works. Bibles and Prayer-Books are not touched, nor need the Handbook be any longer concealed. When the books are in large parcels, they will be forwarded by the frontier authorities to the Censorship Committee at St. Petersburg, by which they are examined, and ultimately restored to the owner. English and foreign newspapers are not seized, as formerly, when used as wrappers. Sealed letters, lottery-tickets, playing-cards, and books of an immoral or irreligious tendency, are liable to seizure. Fire-arms cannot be introduced into Russia and Poland without special licence. Travellers coming to Russia for the purpose of shooting should deliver up their guns to the Customs' authorities, by whom they will be forwarded to the place of destination, there to be applied for on arrival. The proper office will be indicated, and a receipt will be given.

The proceedings of Government officials are far stricter in Poland than elsewhere in the Russian dominions, and their searchings are tedious, both at the frontier and the entrance to Warsaw. The officers are, however, civil and courteous as long as the traveller is so, and a Custom-house officer cannot have much to say to a person whose baggage is confined to his own personal requisites.

N.B.—Any well-founded complaints against officers of Customs will be strictly inquired into and redressed by His Excellency the Director of Customs at St. Petersburg, to whom representations should be addressed.

8.—Posting.

In order to travel post in Russia, it is necessary to have a *podorojna*, or order for horses, in which is inserted the name of the place to which the traveller is going, the distance in versts, and the number of horses required. The cost of the podorojna depends on the number of versts and horses, at a rate which varies from 1½ cops. to 5 cops. per horse, according to the locality. This document is obtained from the governor of the town which the traveller is leaving, or at an office specially appointed for the purpose. On making the application it is necessary to produce a passport. The greatest care must be taken of the podorojna, and it should be kept at hand, for it will be required at each post-station as an authority for the post-masters to furnish horses; and, if mislaid or lost, the unfortunate owner will be obliged to continue his journey with a peasant's horses, subject to all his caprices as to charge, hour of starting, and distance of each day's journey. A table showing the distance from one station to another is hung up in every post-house, frequently a mere hut; also the charge for each horse is stated. A book is likewise kept in which travellers may enter their complaints. Should any difficulties arise, a request to see this book may have some effect upon the dilatory and extortionate post-master. This official is bound to furnish at least the number of horses ordered in the podorojna; but he may oblige the traveller to take more if the roads require it, and this he does sometimes to the extent of making him journey with 6, and in very bad roads 9 horses; he may also, and often does, on the cross-roads, affirm there are no horses left but those which he is bound to keep for the mail or Government courier. A little persuasion will however generally secure the requisite number of quadrupeds. The drivers expect a fee of 10 to 20 cops. for the stage, according to its length. This varies greatly, viz. from 12 to 30 versts. Many of the post-masters in the South of Russia are Polish Jews, and, though not more rapacious than their Christian brethren of the same trade, are quite as bad.

The traveller should take especial care never to travel post just before, or immediately after, a courier or other man in authority. The saving in time and temper will be considerable if an *avant* courier is employed when travelling in the steppe. The speed when posting is sometimes great, the horses going *ventre à terre*; but so much time is lost at the post-houses in changing, that, including stoppages, the traveller will not clear much beyond 8 or 9 miles an hour. If the traveller is not provided with his own carriage, should he not borrow or hire one at the place of starting, he must content

himself with the accommodation afforded by a *telega*, a small open waggon without springs, but strongly constructed, so as to withstand the roads of the country. The jolting is most painful; straw, and not unfrequently a bed, is placed in the cart by Russian travellers. Gathering up his 6 or 8 reins, for there are 2 to each horse, and grasping his short severe whip, the *yamstchik* leaves the post-house at a furious gallop, and keeping the horses at this pace nearly the whole stage, not unfrequently returns to his station with one less than he set out with. The *kibitka* in winter is an improvement on the *telega*, as it has a hood and an apron.

In the winter sledges will be found even as far South as Odessa, and in this season from 10 to 12 miles an hour may be accomplished. The price of posting in the Finnish provinces is, perhaps, rather less than in Russia. In the provinces of Esthonia, Livonia, and Courland, a considerable difference exists, the charges in the latter district being much higher than in any other part of Russia. In Poland the charge is 1 zlot (9*d*. English) per Polish mile of 7 versts for each horse, and about half a zlot for the driver; but it is customary to give them 1 zlot per mile. The whole system is much inferior to that established in Russia, or in the provinces of Livonia and Courland; even where the roads are as good as any in Europe, as in the neighbourhood of Warsaw, the traveller is unable to make much speed, and the constant delays from the horses not being ready are vexatious in the extreme. As alterations are frequently made in the post-stations, and sometimes in the roads, it will be desirable for the traveller, should he purpose visiting the more distant provinces of the empire, to purchase the printed routes published on authority for the year, and have the names of the stations read over to him, so that he can write them down in English—this will preserve him from the idea that he is imposed upon, sometimes as great a vexation as the reality. The post-maps are very accurate. The price of the posting is always paid before starting.

9.—Cuisine and Restaurants.

The Dîner-à-la-Russe, as known in England, differs widely in substance, though not in form, from its prototype of Moscow.

The following is the *menu* * of a Russian dinner, which the traveller is invited to read in Russian accents to the proprietor of the "Palkin Traktir" at St. Petersburg, or to the landlord of the "Novo-Troitski," or the "Moscovski Traktir," at Moscow.

I.—Zakuska.

This is the *vorschmack* (*dinette*) of most northern nations. It consists of various relishes, such as fresh caviar, raw herrings, smoked salmon, *balyk* (sturgeon dried in the sun), raw smoked goose, radishes, cheese, butter, and other *comestibles*. These need not be specified, the word "Zakuska" comprehending everything of the kind in season. A glass of Kümmel (Alasch), or of "Listofka," an excellent spirit flavoured with the young

* It is scarcely necessary to point out that this is not the *menu* of a *recherché* dinner, but simply of a repast composed exclusively of national *plats*.

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leaves of the black currant, is highly recommended. The curious may try the other liquors, or vodkas, which will be served up.

II.—The Obed, or Dinner.

1. Soups:—

Okroshka; a cold iced soup of kvas (a beverage made of fermented rye), with pieces of herring, cucumber, and meat floating in it.

Batvenia: another cold soup of green colour, scarcely more palatable.

Stchi: a very good cabbage soup; the sour cream served round should be added.

Ukhà, or fish soup: this is rather expensive if made of sterlet, but is very good of ershi, or stone-perch.

Travellers would do well to order small quantities of each description of potage, in the ratio of one portion for three or four. A mere taste will suffice in the case of the two cold soups.

2. Rastigai: patties of the isinglass and flesh of the sturgeon. Very much like muffins with fish.

3. Solianka, *Krasny Perets:* a dish composed of fish and cabbage. Recommended. Use cayenne.

4. Pojarskié kotlety: cutlets of chicken à la Pojarski, the patriot. Very good. Veal cutlets are also a speciality of Moscow.

5. Porosënok pod khrenòm: cold boiled sucking pig with horse-radish sauce. Not a pretty dish, but very eatable.

6. Barany-bok s-kashoi: roast mutton stuffed with buckwheat. An excellent opportunity of tasting the buckwheat, the staple food of the country.

7. Jarkoé: the roast, consisting of molodyé tétéreva, or young capercailzie (up to September); riabchik, a kind of grouse (all the year round); and dupelia, or double snipe (in September). Salted cucumbers as salad. Vegetables will not be served unless ordered.

8. Pirojnoé: sweet dishes. Gurief pudding, made principally of buckwheat, is not a bad dish.

Order Nesselrode pudding, an excellent combination of plum-pudding and ices, and Moscovite, something between an ice and a jelly, flavoured with the fruit of the season.

Should digestion require it, the *Syr*, or cheese from the Zakuska, and even the caviar, may be served up again, though it is not customary at a Russian table.

With reference to wines and drinks, it is indispensable, for the sake of harmony and comparison, to order nothing but what is produced on Russian soil. The sherry of the Crimea is a very tolerable brown sherry; the imitations of Bordeaux and Champagne, provided they are really of the Crimean grape, not of the manufactories at Yaroslaf, are better than many inferior marks of the genuine article. Prince Woronzoff's wines are highly recommended. The wine of the Caucasus comes in very appropriately as a Burgundy. Be sure to ask for Kahétinskoé, a very sound and pure wine. The ladies will be pleased with Gumbrinskoé, a pleasant sweet wine grown in the Gumbri district of the Caucasus. The champagne of the Don, Donskoé Champanskoé, very often appears on Russian tables disguised as Clicquot, and is really a very potable wine; all the sparkling wines of the

Crimea have a slight taste of apples, and the others have the *goût du terroir*.

But besides the wines, there are several delicious beverages, under the denomination of Kvas. Order Iablochni kvas, or cider; Grushevoi kvas, or perry; Malinovoi, or raspberry kvas. The best, however, of all, is perhaps the goblet of cool Lompopo, the recipe of which is supposed to have travelled from the Baltic provinces. There is excellent beer to be had at St. Petersburg. "Cazalet's or Kalinkinski Pale Ale" is almost equal to English draught ale. At Moscow "Danielson's" beer is alone drunk. Mead is likewise very pleasant to the taste. All these drinks are served in old silver tankards and beakers of German work. Coffee, liqueurs, and cigarettes complete the feast. Fruits can be had if demanded; excellent in season.

The *service* is very good; the slightest want is quietly and promptly supplied by the most civil of waiters, attired in bright-coloured silk shirts, worn over another garment of equal effect and neatness.

The cost of a dinner like that described above, exclusive of the zakuska, sterlet soup, wines, kvas, coffee, and fruit, will not be less than 2 rs. 50 cop. per head (7*s*. 6*d*.), and perhaps 5 rs. (15*s*.) in a dear season. The charge for a plate of sterlet soup is from 1·50 to 3 rs (4*s*. 6*d*. to 9*s*.) according to the size of the fish ordered.

The wines are very cheap compared with those of France or Spain.

The dinner should, if possible, be ordered a day beforehand, although a few hours will suffice to secure most of the dishes named. In ordering it, special mention should be made of the wines of the Crimea, of the Don, and the Caucasus, as well as of the Kvas, as the former are not generally kept on the premises. If the party be numerous, two or three rubles should be distributed among the waiters.

Having finished dinner, the visitor to Moscow should proceed to inspect the rooms devoted to tea-drinking. A seat close to the barrel-organ is the best point of observation. While sipping *Joltoi Chai*, or yellow tea, observe the bearded natives refilling their small teapot with a never-failing supply of hot water, soon converted into the palest beverage, sweetened with the piece of sugar kept in the mouth. The conversations carried on over the Chai relate to the transfer of rubles for value received or to be given. Events of a more festive character are celebrated at establishments where the bottle and the glass replace the more steady teapot, especially since the price of Vodka has been made very low. Those establishments need not be inspected; their effect will be painfully seen in the tottering moujik and the oblivious woman jolting home in a drojky, or waiting to be picked up from the gutter.

The climate must to a great extent be responsible for the habit of drunkenness unfortunately so prevalent in Russia, for it is older than the reforms in the excise to which much of it is now attributed. Master George Turberville, secretary to an English embassy to Moscow in the year 1568, says of the Russians that they are—

> "Folke fit to be of Bacchus' train, so quaffing is their kinde.
> Drink is their whole desire, the pot is all their pride,
> The sob'rest head doth once a day stand needful of a guide;
> If he to banket bid his friends, he will not shrinke
> On them at dinner to bestow a dozen kinds of drinke;

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Such liquor as they have, and as the country gives;
But chiefly two, one called Kwas, whereby the Mousike lives,
Small ware and waterlike, but somewhat tart in taste.
The rest is mead of home-made, wherewith their lips they baste.
And if he goe unto his neighbour as a guest,
He cares for little meat, if so his drinke be of the best."

Hospitality is still, as then, one of the chief virtues of the Russian people.

10.—Climate, Clothing, &c.

The subjoined Table of the mean temperature at various places in Russia, by Fahrenheit, will give the traveller an idea of the climate of Russia:—

	Annual Mean Temperature.	Winter. Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Summer. June.	July.	August.
St. Petersburg	+ 38·7	+ 18·3			+ 60·6		
Moscow	+ 39·6	+ 14·7			+ 64·9		
Helsingfors	+ 38·7	+ 20·5			+ 59·0		
Kief	+ 44·4	+ 22·5			+ 65·3		
Odessa	+ 49·3	+ 25·2			+ 70·7		
Tiflis	+ 55·2	+ 35·6			+ 73·9		
Archangel	+ 33·3	+ 9·3			+ 57·7		
Irkutsk	+ 31·1	- 1·3			+ 61·5		
Yakutsk	+ 11·1	- 37·9			+ 57·9		

The winter season sets in at St. Petersburg about the beginning of November, when the Neva freezes, to open again about the end of April. In summer the prevalent winds are from the W., S.W., and N.E., and in winter those from the S.W., S., and S.E. Paradoxical as it may appear, the cold is in reality much less felt in Russia than in southern countries. The houses are adapted to resist the greatest amount of frost, and are even too warm. It is fallacious to suppose that the cold is ever so intense at Moscow or St. Petersburg as to prevent people from issuing out into the open air. Twenty-five degrees below zero of Réaumur * is a very pleasant and exhilarating condition of the atmosphere when not accompanied by wind. Even the cold at Yakutsk, which is sometimes twice as intense as that of St. Petersburg or Moscow, is quite bearable, for it is seldom accompanied by wind. Frostbites may be avoided by taking the most ordinary precautions. The ears are liable to freeze if long exposed. In very cold weather they should be occasionally rubbed, in order to promote the circulation of the blood. Snow is the best application in cases of frostbite.

The climate of St. Petersburg is more variable than that of Moscow, owing to its proximity to the Gulf of Finland. Rain and a complete thaw will sometimes suddenly succeed 18° of Fahrenheit. Travellers in winter should, however, take no notice of such variations, but continue to wear their fur clothing. Any change of dress in winter is sure to produce a violent cold. Cloaks of the racoon (Shúba) are mostly worn. They may be purchased in Germany for about 100 thalers, but their quality will be found inferior to those of Russia. A walking coat thickly wadded, and with a fur collar, will be found very useful. Ladies wear cloaks or jackets wadded with eiderdown or lined with fox-skins. A sable collar and muff,

* A degree of Réaumur is equivalent to about 2¼ degrees of Fahrenheit, or rather 9° F.=4° R.

and a small round hat of sable, complete the winter costume of a lady. These furs should be purchased at St. Petersburg (at Efimof's, Gostinnoi Dvor), where they will be found much cheaper and far better than in England or in Germany. The journey to St. Petersburg may very well be made by ladies throughout winter in thickly wadded coats or cloaks without fur collars or cuffs, which will only be found requisite in driving or walking. Boots lined with fur or long boots of felt are indispensable to both sexes for this journey in winter.

The following table (taken from the Academical Almanach of St. Petersburg) will assist the traveller to convert degrees of Réaumur into their equivalents by Fahrenheit:—

F.*	R.	F.	R.	F.	R.	F.	R.	F.	R.
-40	-32·0	- 6	-16·9	+28	- 1·8	+62	+13·3	+ 96	+28·4
38	31·1	4	16·0	30	0·9	64	14·2	98	29·3
36	30·2	2	15·1	32	0·0	66	15·1	100	30·2
34	29·3	0	14·2	34	+ 0·9	68	16·0	102	31·1
32	28·4	+ 2	13·3	36	1·8	70	16·9	104	32·0
30	27·6	4	12·4	38	2·7	72	17·8	106	32·9
28	26·7	6	11·6	40	3·6	74	18·7	108	33·8
26	25·8	8	10·7	42	4·4	76	19·6	110	34·7
24	24·9	10	9·8	44	5·3	78	20·4	120	39·1
22	24·0	12	8·9	46	6·2	80	21·3	130	43·6
20	23·1	14	8·0	48	7·1	82	22·2	150	52·4
18	22·2	16	7·1	50	8·0	84	23·1	170	61·3
16	21·3	18	6·2	52	8·9	86	24·0	190	70·2
14	20·4	20	5·3	54	9·8	88	24·9	210	79·1
12	19·6	22	4·4	56	10·7	90	25·8	212	80·0
10	18·7	24	3·6	58	11·6	92	26·7	——	——
8	17·8	26	2·7	60	12·4	94	27·6	——	——

* The freezing-point of Fahrenheit is 32°, and the boiling-point is represented by 212°.

11.—Sanitary Peculiarities.

The most common disease among the higher and middle classes in Russia, and one, indeed, from which few families are exempt, is scrofula. Consumption, on the other hand, is far less prevalent than in Great Britain, although most of the causes which are supposed to favour the development of tubercle may be detected in Russian life; such causes, for instance, as wretched ventilation, and sometimes even no ventilation at all, and frequent changes in the weather, from hot to cold, and from dry to damp; and, among the lower classes, an insufficient quantity of food, and an excessive indulgence in intoxicating drinks. Scurvy and rickets are very common diseases among the lower class of Russians who live in towns. Both complaints are the results, no doubt, of want of food, and of strict observance of the Church fasts, the sum total of which covers nearly five months out of the twelve. Not only is meat forbidden, but all products of the animal

kingdom, such as eggs, milk, cheese, &c., as well. The poor, therefore, have a very small diet-table to choose from, and it is these who observe the fast most strictly. If it were not for the acid rye-bread which they eat, and the sour kvas which they drink, scurvy would perhaps be more common even than it is now. Diarrhœa and dysentery are very prevalent,

In the immediate neighbourhood of St. Petersburg the ground is all strictly preserved, either by private clubs or by the Crown; but a drive of a few hours, or a short trip by rail, will give the sportsman an unlimited extent of moor and forest, where he can range at will. He must not, however, expect to make large "bags;" from 5 to 10 brace of wood-game, or from 10 to 15 couple of snipe, in a good snipe season, is about the average of a fair day's shooting.

The shooting season commences on the 15th (27th) of July, and the game to be found in all the northern forests comprises the following birds:—capercailzie, black game, willow-grouse, and hazel-grouse, or *geli-*

English partridge. These last, however, are not, strictly speaki
genous in the northern provinces, and their presence in the ne
hood of St. Petersburg may be attributed to the fact that man
clubs are in the habit of procuring these birds in considerable
from Courland and elsewhere, and turning them out in the spring.

ST. PETERSBURG.

HÔTEL D'ANGLETERRE.

ST. ISAAC'S SQUARE.

(*Gostinitza Angleterre Issakofski Sabor.*)

H. SCHMITZ, PROPRIETOR.

THIS new and well-conducted Hotel, situated in the centre of the City, facing the St. Isaac's Church, near the Post-office, the Royal Palaces and Public Buildings, affords large suites of well-furnished Apartments for Families, and comfortable and airy Bedrooms for Single Gentlemen. A large Dining-room where Dinners are served from Three till Seven o'Clock, from One Rouble and above. A well-furnished Reading-room. The 'Times,' and other English, French, and German Newspapers.

HOT AND COLD BATHS, TUBS, AND SITTING BATHS.

Guides and Servants speaking English.

Omnibuses at the Stations, and Steamboats near Landing-places for Stockholm and England.

THE QUEEN'S MESSENGERS FREQUENT THIS HOTEL.

N.B.—Misses Bensons' Hotel no longer exists.

some fellow-sportsmen under the guidance of one of the peasant [illegible] are all capital walkers, and generally amusing companions, and by despicable shots.

Battue-Shooting.—By the end of September all shooting with retrievers over for the season, the capercailzie and black-game have retired to the thickest woods, the willow-grouse are packed and defy the most and the snipe and woodcock have all left for warmer climes. Battue-shooting now commences, and although a large head of game is seldom bagged, there is a pleasant variety in the game driven forward, and a wild

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notte; and on many of the tracts of cultivated land the grey or common English partridge. These last, however, are not, strictly speaking, indigenous in the northern provinces, and their presence in the neighbourhood of St. Petersburg may be attributed to the fact that many of the clubs are in the habit of procuring these birds in considerable numbers from Courland and elsewhere, and turning them out in the spring.

South of Moscow the quail abounds, and the bustard is still found on many of the Steppes. In the Caucasus the sportsman will find plenty of pheasants. Of migratory birds, besides innumerable kinds of wild-fowl, we may mention the woodcock, great or double snipe, single and jack snipe, golden plover, curlew, corncrake, &c. &c.

The woodcock arrives early in spring, and considerable numbers remain and breed in the vicinity; the autumn flights arrive about the end of August, or first days of September. Legends of by-gone days tell of wonderful cock-shooting at no great distance from St. Petersburg; but four or five cocks are now considered a very good day's shooting. Of the three species of snipe, an inconsiderable number stop on their passage northwards in the spring, and breed; their reappearance in the autumn is very uncertain. Some seasons there is capital snipe-shooting, and from 15 to 30 couple of snipe to a single gun is by no means a rare occurrence; while sometimes you may walk all day without a shot. The double snipe arrives about the 12th (24th) of August, and the flights continue till about the 7th of September. These birds are very shy of the cold, and a night's frost drives them all to the southward. The single and the jack are rather later in their arrival, and the last-named little fellow remains until the frost is sufficiently severe to freeze the bogs and pools.

Dogs.—The best dogs for the rough and varied shooting in Russia are setters, English-bred, but broken in the country. If first-rate, they should be close rangers in the woods, and wide on the moors. Many dogs will leave their "point" and return to the sportsman, showing by their movements that they have found game, and then bring him quietly up to the point. This is an invaluable quality, as much of the shooting is in thick cover, where it is impossible to see your dog farther than a few paces. By the middle of August the capercailzie and black-game are very difficult of approach, and run long distances before they rise, generally out of shot. A clever dog will sometimes make a round and head the game back to the sportsman.

A pointer, as a less hardy animal than the setter, will often not face the cold water on the moors and marshes, while his legs, unprotected, like those of the setter, by the long feathering hair, are more liable to injury in ranging over the rough broken ground.

The best way for a stranger to see sport is—having first ascertained from some fellow-sportsman the most likely localities for game—to put himself under the guidance of one of the peasant Nimrods of the district. They are all capital walkers, and generally amusing companions, and by no means despicable shots.

Battue-Shooting.—By the end of September all shooting with dogs is over for the season, the capercailzie and black-game have retired to the thickest woods, the willow-grouse are packed and defy the most wary dog, and the snipe and woodcock have all left for warmer climes. Battue-shooting now commences, and although a large head of game is seldom bagged, there is a pleasant variety in the game driven forward, and a wildness in the

vast woods and moorland, which possesses a charm for the true sportsman. Besides the birds already enumerated, there are plenty of hares,—the white hare, which frequents the woods and moors, and weighs from 7 to 10 lbs.; the red hare of the plains and cultivated lands, weighing from 10 to 15 lbs. Vulpecidism is not here considered a crime, and many is the gallant fox who has fallen before the deadly barrel in a battue. The visitor will have little difficulty in procuring an invitation to one of these shooting parties, which are organized at most of the clubs once a week. The number of beaters generally employed is from 80 to 100, according to the extent of the ground to be beaten. Fifty head of game to ten guns is considered a very good day's sport. These battues continue until the winter regularly sets in, when the deep snow renders it impossible for the beaters to get over the ground.

The winter shooting comprises bear, wolf, elk, and lynx.

Bears.—Bears are to be found in considerable numbers in all the extensive forests in the North, and of late years their number has rather been on the increase. The general way in which this sport is followed is this:—as soon as the first snow falls, peasants start from their villages in search of bear-tracks; as soon as they come upon traces they follow the track until they know by the numerous turns and twists which Bruin has made that he is thinking of choosing some snug corner for his winter quarters; they then proceed with greater caution, and, when they consider that the bear is not very far off, they leave the track and make a circle, returning to their starting-place. If they have not again crossed the track, they know that the bear must be within the circle; they then advance a little further, when they again make a détour as before; and thus they proceed, gradually narrowing the circle until they have enclosed the bear within a comparatively small circumference. They then set off to town and offer the bear to any sportsman whom they happen to know; if he decides upon taking the bear at the price offered, he invites some of his friends to join him in the hunt, and they set out, either by rail or in sleighs, as the case may be, to the village nearest the spot where the bear is. Beaters are then collected, the number varying according to the extent of the circle; they are placed in a semicircle, while the sportsmen stand in a line at distances of from fifty to eighty yards from one another, according to the number of guns and the nature of the ground. The bear, roused from his slumbers by the shouts and cries of the peasants, makes a bolt for it, and generally comes within shot of one or other of the guns, which either wounds, kills, or misses him, although it but seldom happens that a single shot suffices to put an end to Bruin's existence. When wounded, the bear, more especially if it is a mother with cubs, is a dangerous customer, and it requires both nerve and courage to deal successfully with so formidable an antagonist. The sportsman, however, is generally provided with two guns, and a spear as a *dernier ressort*, and most of the accidents which have happened have arisen either from foolhardiness or a want of nerve. When "ringing" a bear, as it is termed, should the peasant when making his ring again cross the track of the bear, he knows that he has gone out of the circle, and accordingly, instead of returning to his starting-point, he follows the fresh track, and proceeds as before described. Many sportsmen are not satisfied with the uncertain prospect of a shot at a bear held out by a joint battue, and adopt another plan, for the success of which it is necessary that the peasant who

has "ringed" a bear should wait until he has settled himself for the winter, and then discover the spot where he has made his den; this accomplished, he gives information to the sportsman, who goes to the place, either alone with the peasant, or accompanied by a friend, generally taking with him three or four rough dogs, who answer the double purpose of rousing the bear from his lair, and distracting his attention from the sportsman. In this way the hunter is almost sure of a shot, and has generally only himself to blame if he returns empty-handed. Some of the most noted and successful bear-hunters make a regular campaign against Bruin for several weeks together, camping out at night in the forest, and often pursuing for days together a bear who has escaped the bullet when started from his lair. The best season of the year for this sport is January and February, at which time the snow is in a favourable condition for running on snow-shoes, without which accessories the hunter, sinking at every step to the middle in the deep snow, would be powerless. The snow-shoes are about 7 feet long and 6 inches broad, slightly curved at the point, with a foot-piece in the middle, to which are attached thongs or straps for securing the snow-shoe to the foot. Some of them are covered underneath with the skin of the reindeer, which is of great assistance to the hunter in ascending hills. In the absence of this under-covering of skin, the hunter provides himself with a pole about 8 feet in length, with a curved point of horn or bone, with which he guides himself in descending, or prevents his feet from slipping backwards in ascending any rising ground. It requires considerable practice to become an adept in the art of running on snow-shoes, but without them it is quite impossible to attempt to follow game in the winter time.

An Englishman, who for many years was a mighty bear-hunter in Russia, was in the habit of attacking and pursuing these animals armed only with a spear; and although many were the deadly struggles that he had face to face with his grim opponent, he never met with any accident. To use the spear with any certainty requires great dexterity and strength of arm, with nerves of iron, and should on no account be attempted by a novice.

The Emperor Alexander II. is a keen and experienced sportsman, and passionately fond of bear-shooting, and every winter adds several skins to his already numerous trophies. Bears, as well as elk and wolves, are often shot within 40 miles of St. Petersburg.

Elk.—Elk-shooting is conducted much in the same way as the ordinary battue for bear. The peasants, however, will sometimes follow them for days for the chance of a shot.

Wolves.—Wolves are shot by hunting with dogs, by an ordinary battue, and sometimes by riding down; but this requires a peculiar condition of the snow, as well as rideable ground. They are to be found in considerable numbers in the immediate neighbourhood of St. Petersburg, as well as all over Russia, and, unless hard pressed by hunger and in packs, are seldom dangerous.

Lynx.—The lynx is occasionally shot in the vicinity of St. Petersburg, and the species most generally found is the *Felis virgata* of Nilssen. They are a very wary animal, and even when "ringed" are very difficult to drive from their lurking-place.

There are no reindeer in the immediate neighbourhood of St. Petersburg, but they abound in the provinces of Archangel, Olonetz, &c. &c.

Fox-hunting.—A subscription pack of foxhounds is kept up by the English community at St. Petersburg. The kennels are about 12 m. out of town, and are well worth seeing, even out of the hunting season, which begins towards the end of August and ends about the middle of October, when the ground begins to get hard and slippery. Many a good run has been had with the "Gorêloé hounds," notwithstanding the marshy and wooded nature of the country. A fox-hunting traveller will be most cordially welcomed and even mounted, provided he have no objection to bestride a Cossack pony—an animal which is however well adapted to the sort of work expected of him at Gorêloé.

Fishing.—Finland is famous for its streams and lakes stocked with the finest fish, and it will no doubt be one day as much visited as Norway for the purposes of sport; for descriptions of which vide "Grand Duchy of Finland."

13.—Society.

Winter is the season for gaieties in Russia. Travellers with letters of introduction will find *salons* of St. Petersburg as brilliant as those of Paris, but they are unfortunately not many. During a good season dinner parties, receptions, soirées, and balls, occur in such rapid succession, that the man of fashion will find the winter too short, rather than too long. There is no dancing during the forty days that precede Easter. Christmas and the Carnival are the gayest periods. Two or three court balls are then given, and "distinguished strangers" who have been presented at home will sometimes receive invitations. Travellers wishing to be presented to H. I. M. must apply for an audience through H. M.'s Embassy.

It is necessary to wear a uniform at court. French is the language spoken in society, but English is generally understood. Strangers are expected to make the first call, which is returned either in person or by card. In leaving cards on persons who are not at home, one of the edges of the card should be turned up. It is necessary to leave a card next day on any person to whom the stranger may have been introduced at a party. Those who are introduced *to* the stranger will observe the same politeness. Great punctuality is exacted at St. Petersburg in the matter of leaving cards after entertainments and introductions. Visiting on New Year's Day may be avoided by giving a small contribution to the charitable institutions of the city, which will be duly acknowledged in the newspapers.

No presents are given to servants, except at New Year and Easter, when the porters of much-frequented houses will offer their congratulations in anticipation of a donation of 1 to 5 rubles, according to the number of visits paid. The hours for calling are 3 to 5 P.M.; dinner parties are generally convened for 6 or 6·30; and receptions commence at about 10 P.M., and last very late. Guests are expected to be punctual where members of the Imperial Family are invited. Ladies wishing to pass a "season" at St. Petersburg should recollect that Russian ladies dress very richly, though in great taste. The charges of dress-makers at St. Petersburg being exorbitant, it is advisable to come provided with all the necessary *toilettes*. At balls, the only dance in which the stranger will not at first be able to join is the zurka, a kind of *cotillon* imported from Poland. It is also necessary to

observe that partners are not engaged for the whole of a waltz or polka, but only for a turn.

In summer there are generally two or three *salons* out of town open for evening receptions. Ladies can wear *robes montantes*, and gentlemen light trousers and white waistcoats, with dress coats. The same costume for dinner parties in summer.

Travellers should not forget that a Russian invariably takes off his hat whenever he enters an apartment, however humble; and an omission to pay this respect to the holy image suspended in the corner of every room will immediately be noticed, and hurt the feelings of the host or hostess. Top coats must always be removed on entering Russian houses, as a point of etiquette and politeness.

14.—Seasons for Travelling.

Winter is naturally the most appropriate season for travelling in Russia; for the prevalence of ice and snow during a great portion of the year is the characteristic feature of the country. The mode of life which the long dark nights of winter induce, the contrivances of man to overcome the obstacles presented by the climate, the dormant aspect of nature, with its thick covering of dazzling snow, and its ice-bound lakes and rivers, now bearing horses and the heaviest burdens where ships floated and waves rolled, perhaps only a fortnight before:—all these scenes and peculiar phases of life render a journey to Russia very interesting and desirable in winter.

But we cannot expect many tourists to submit to the hardships of travelling very far at such a season; nor do we recommend it beyond a visit to St. Petersburg, where a very good idea of a Russian winter may be obtained, and where sight-seeing and amusements of a social character entail no discomfort. Moscow might, indeed, in winter disappoint the traveller who seeks the picturesque, and should therefore be visited in summer, when the sun lights up with an extraordinary brilliancy the striking panorama of that city of churches and gilded cupolas.

As, moreover, the great mass of tourists only visit the Continent during the months of summer, our counsel in the matter of travelling in Russia is scarcely needed; but as, on the other hand, there are many who can dispose of their time at all seasons, we may as well summarise our advice and our experience as follows.

1. Summer.—Proceed by steamer or yacht to the Baltic, and visit the towns on the coast of Finland. Spend a week at St. Petersburg, in seeing the churches, art collections, and other sights. Go to Moscow for a week, which will be fully occupied in viewing thoroughly all the places and objects described in Route 6. Novgorod the Great and the monastery of the New Jerusalem may be visited on the way by those who can spare three more days. If at the proper season (middle of August), the fair of Nijni should be seen. The voyage down the Volga and across the Caspian, the tour in the Crimea, the journeys to Pekin and Teheran, should also only be performed in summer. From St. Petersburg return overland, by way of Poland.

Travellers are attracted to Warsaw principally by political sympathies, or by a desire to see a country which has occupied so much of the attention

of the statesmen of Europe. It may be visited indifferently, either in winter or summer, on the way to or from St. Petersburg.

2. Winter.—Travellers should visit St. Petersburg specially in winter, with the object of seeing Russia in her natural garb. The collections of the Hermitage, the exhilarating sports, the rapid sleighing, and the gay life of the great capital of the North, will afford much enjoyment, and amply recompense the time spent, and the somewhat heavy expenses which such a trip will entail.

15.—Railways and Principal Routes.

Railways are being so rapidly pushed on in Russia in various directions that it is as yet impossible to reduce travelling in that conntry to any system. The tourist's course must for some time continue to be zigzag and erratic, for a methodic route traced to-day would probably not be available for more than six months after. The accompanying map will show the principal directions which the railways are taking, the line of most importance to tourists being that which will connect the Crimea with Moscow and St. Petersburg. Until that line is opened throughout its entire length, few travellers for pleasure will go beyond Moscow or Nijni. Two years hence (when a new edition of this Handbook will probably become necessary) Moscow will not be, as at present, the *Ultima Thule* of the great majority of travellers. It will only be visited *en route* from or to the Crimea. In the mean while it may be stated generally, for the encouragement of travellers, that the Russian railways are the most comfortable in Europe. On the line between St. Petersburg and Moscow the traveller may regularly go to bed in a sleeping compartment; he may ask for a table and play at cards; and he may even make his morning ablutions in the train. The stoppages are rather too frequent to please the impatient traveller, but on such long journeys it is frequently very refreshing to be able to stretch one's legs even for five minutes at a station.

Railway travelling being somewhat new to the Russian people, the traveller will sometimes be surprised to see a certain amount of disorder in the taking and keeping of seats. On entering a train all the seats will at first appear to be occupied, but an application to the station-master will soon cause a removal of the cloaks, bedding, &c., with which the carriage is packed. However, these artifices are not peculiar to Russia alone. As a rule, the traveller will find every comfort and civility on the lines of railway, &c., described in the following pages, where it is to be hoped sufficient information will be found to render the journey interesting. The words and dialogues given in the "Vocabulary" have been found amply sufficient to enable the tourist to reach Astrakhan without any previous knowledge whatever of the Russian language.

The arrangement of skeleton routes and systematic tours must be reserved for the next edition.

Notice.—A Railway Guide for Russia, or 'Ukazatel Puteshestviya,' is published at St. Petersburg by Messrs. F. B. Froom and Co., in the Russian language (with the headings of the Tables in English), and may be purchased for 25 c. at all the principal stations.

ROUTES.

[The names of places are printed in *italics* only in those routes where the places are *described*.]

ROUTE	PAGE
1. London to *St. Petersburg*, overland, viâ Berlin, *Kowno*, *Wilna*, and *Pskof*.	65
2. London to St. Petersburg, by Sea, viâ *Cronstadt*	157
3. London to St. Petersburg, viâ *Archangel*	157
4. Berlin to *Reval*, by *Riga*, *Dorpat*, &c.	163
5. St. Petersburg to *Novgorod the Great*.	173
6. St. Petersburg to *Moscow* ..	
7. Moscow to *Troitsa Monastery* (Troitskaya-Sergieva Lavra)	176 217
8. Moscow to *Nijni Novgorod*, with branch line to Shuya and Ivanovo, and excursion up the Oka to *Murom*, *Elatma*, and *Kasimof* ..	220
9. Volga: Tver to *Astrakhan* ..	228

ROUTE 1.

LONDON TO ST. PETERSBURG, OVERLAND, VIA BERLIN, KOWNO, WILNA, AND PSKOF.

By travelling without intermission, St. Petersburg can be reached from London in 3½ days.

Through tickets from Charing-cross to St. Petersburg, available for 30 days, and enabling travellers to stop at the principal continental towns on the route, are issued at the following rates:—

	fr.	c.
1st class viâ Ostend	355	10*
Ditto viâ Calais	359	60
Mixed ticket (2nd class between Cologne and St. Petersburg)—		
viâ Ostend	283	30
viâ Calais	287	20

* These rates vary slightly every week, according to the rise or fall of the exchanges.

Each passenger is allowed 60 lbs. of luggage free of charge.

As the Russian 2nd class carriages are not equal to those on the German lines, the English or American traveller, with a mixed ticket, is recommended to pay at Wierzbolow the difference to St. Petersburg between 1st and 2nd class.

The route from London to Berlin and Königsberg is described in *Handbook of North Germany*.

The journey is broken at Berlin, where travellers may remain 12 hrs. or go through. In case of fatigue, a night may be passed at Königsberg or at Eydkuhnen, on the Prussian frontier. The carriages throughout are comfortable and roomy, and present facilities for sleeping. Buffets frequent and good. Money can be changed either at Eydkuhnen (the last Prussian station), or at Wierzbolow, where the exchange of the day is given.

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560 m. from St. Petersburg, at Wir-

ballen (or Wierzbolow), passports and luggage are examined. Porters charge 5 copecks for every parcel they carry. Good buffet kept by a Frenchman, and plenty of time for refreshment. The first 4 stations beyond are, like Wirballen, in the kingdom of Poland, and the train only enters Russia at

506 m. *Kowno.* Chief town of province, at the confluence of the Vilia and Niemen. Pop. 24,000. On the 23rd June, 1812, the French army crossed the Niemen, near Kowno, on their advance to Moscow, and some rising ground on the opposite bank is still called "Napoleon's Hill." The town was occupied by a large corps d'armée, and suffered considerably. The remnants of the army recrossed the river at the same spot on the 13th December, in a very bad state of discipline. In the centre of the market-place, in front of the town-hall and barracks (established in an ancient Polish ch.), is a monument commemorative of the retreat, and bearing the following inscription in Russian:—"In 1812 Russia was invaded by an army numbering 700,000 men. The army recrossed the frontier numbering 70,000."

Kowno formed part of the ancient Duchy of Lithuania, now called one of the N.W. provinces of Russia, whose history will be read at Wilna. The scenery around is mountainous and wooded. In the days of paganism this site was of great repute as the residence of several mythological divinities. The town is supposed to have been founded in the early part of the 11th centy. In the 14th and 15th cents. the castle of Kowno played an important part in the history of Lithuania. It was frequently attacked by the Teutonic Knights; but in 1400 Vitovt, Grand Duke of Lithuania, ordered it to be blown up, in order that it might not fall into other hands. After that event, which took from the town its military importance, Kowno became gradually a centre of trade, particularly after 1581, when it was made the seat of a custom-house for all goods exported out of Poland. The establishment of an English Factory at Kowno in the middle ages is likewise a proof of its great commercial importance. Subsequent religious dissensions reduced the inhabitants to such extreme poverty that in 1654 they were released from the obligation of paying taxes. In 1655 Kowno was burnt and pillaged by the Russians, who occupied this part of the country until 1661, and into whose hands the town fell definitively in 1795. A fire destroyed ¼ of the town in 1808; and in 1812 it was devastated and pillaged by the French. There are several old churches still extant; that dedicated to St. Peter and St. Paul, in the 15th centy., being the largest Roman Cath. ch. in Lithuania. The church of St. George was built in 1471, and the chapel dedicated to St. Gertrude existed in 1503.

Five small stations beyond is

Wilna Stat., 441 m. from St. P. Pop. 58,000. *Hotel.*—Hôtel de l'Europe, recommended. Chief town of the ancient independent Duchy of Lithuania, connected with Poland in 1386, when its Duke, Jagellon, espoused Hedwiga, Queen of Poland. The dynastic union of the two countries imparted the strength which they required in order to repel the invasions of the Teutonic Knights, to arrest the incursions of the Tartars, and to keep the Dukes of Moscow within the limits of their territory. The Union, commenced by the Convention of Wilna, 1401, became organic two centuries later by an Act passed at a Common Diet held at Lublin in 1569. The history of Lithuania remained that of the kingdom of Poland until the Third Partition in 1795, when it was incorporated with Russia. Divided later into the provinces of Wilna, Grodno, Kowno, and Minsk. Lithuania now constitutes, together with the provinces of Mohilef and Witebsk (also called White Russia, and detached from Poland in 1772), the N.W. provinces of the Russian empire, inhabited by the following races:—

1. The dominating elements :—	
a. Poles, represented by the nobility, the Catholic clergy, and the inhabitants of towns ..	580,000
b. Great Russians or Moscovites, consisting of government officials, the Russo-Greek clergy, and colonies of Dissenters from the Russo-Greek Church ..	212,000
2. Rural population :—	
a. White Russians (Slavonians) ..	2,157,000
b. Lithuanians, Samogitians, and Letts	1,556,000
3. Jews	535,000
4. Other elements	65,000
Total	5,105,000

Of these 2½ millions belong to the Russo-Greek, and 2 millions to the Roman Catholic Confession. A very large proportion, however, of the population, considered orthodox by Russian statists, were, before their forced conversion in 1839, Uniats, or worshippers in the amalgamated Churches of the Greek and Roman faith. The Uniat denomination had been introduced in 1599, under the influence of the Jesuits, with a view to Romanise the Lithuanian people, then of the Greek Church. The converted of 1839, then about 2 millions in number, preserve to this day a leaning towards the United Church, which is certainly more Catholic and Polish than Orthodox and Russian.

The political vicissitudes to which these provinces have been subjected, and the mixed nature of their population, afford a fertile and disastrous source of disagreement between the Russians and the Poles. By the former they are regarded and governed as Russians, subject some time to Poland, but now reincorporated by conquest and treaties of partition; while the Polish element, composed of the aristocracy, landed gentry, and educated classes generally, maintain that the N.W. provinces are Polish, and, as such, entitled to a national administration. The imperial Government ignore the claim, and deny that the Poles, subjects of the Emperor, entitled to certain political privileges by the Treaty of Vienna, are the Poles of the N.W. provinces. The claim is, however, unfortunately asserted at every available opportunity. The insurrection of 1831 in the kingdom of Poland was one of those opportunities; the revolution of 1862 at Warsaw was the latest. The repressive measures of Gen. Mouravieff in 1863 and 1864 were dated from Wilna. Here the leaders of the hopeless insurrection in the provinces were confined, tried, hung, or shot. The reduction of the population in the N.W. provinces by deportation to distant parts of the empire is variously estimated at 50,000 to 100,000 souls. Their landed property has since been transferred, by confiscation and forced sale, to native Russians.

The town of Wilna lies in a hollow at the foot of several hills which rise to some height on the E., S., and W. The Vilia river runs out at the northern extremity of the hollow, and, winding through deep and intricate ravines, clothed with foliage of the fir, the birch, and the lime, presents a most picturesque and smiling panorama, little in keeping with the stern deeds of retribution which have made Wilna so famous. Wilna is supposed to have existed in the 12th centy., and was the capital of Lithuania in the early part of the 14th centy., when its population was still pagan. A perpetual fire was kept burning at the foot of the hill which Gedemin crowned with a castle in 1323. The remains of the old castle, with an octangular tower of red brick, are still seen commanding the town, in pleasing contrast with the verdure around. A famine destroyed more than 30,000 inhab. in 1710, and in 1715 the town was almost entirely burnt down.

The house of the Governor-General was formerly the Episcopal Palace, and the present post-office was the residence of Cardinal Radziwil. The churches will repay a visit; the most ancient being the *Cathedral* of St. Stanislaus, built in 1387, and the ch. of the Assumption, founded in 1364. They possess considerable architectural merit, and among their monuments will be found those of

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several families whose names are familiar to all readers of Polish history. The University, established in 1803, was suppressed in 1832.

Wilna was occupied by the French army on the 28th June, 1812. It had been evacuated by the Russians during the night. The Emperor Napoleon occupied in the Episcopal Palace the rooms which the Emperor Alexander had left the previous day. Sir Robert Wilson's Memoirs give interesting details about Wilna. Tyrconnel, his aide-de-camp, lies buried here.

The main line runs hence to Warsaw, but a branch turns off at Landwarowo (the next station after Wilna), for the Prussian frontier.

366 m. Swentsiany, Buffet. Town of 4000 Inhab. on the western Dwina.

331 m. *Dünaburg*, Buf. Town of 27,000 Inhab. in province of Witebsk, formerly known as White Russia. Dünaburg has a first-class fortress, built in 1825, on the site of a fortification raised by Stephen Batory in 1582. A tête-de-pont commands the floating bridge over the river Dvina. John the Terrible of Russia took the town in 1577, after which it was occupied by the Swedes in 1600. The Russians retook it in 1656, but returned it two years later to the Poles, who in their turn were compelled to cede it finally to the Russians in 1772.

The fortress is now the most important strategical point on the Dvina line of defence. As a place of trade, Dünaburg holds a high position among the western towns of Russia. Large quantities of flax, hemp, tallow, and timber are collected here for shipment or carriage to Riga. The opening of the railway to Orel will still further increase the traffic through Dünaburg.

As yet there are no hotels at Dünaburg where travellers bound from Berlin to Moscow viâ Witebsk and Orel can find comfortable quarters. Information respecting the inns of the country should be obtained from the station-master.

There is a branch line from Dünaburg to Riga (*see* Rte. 4), and another to Orel (Rte. 12).

330 m. Antonopol, Buf.

230 m. Korsofka, Buf.

204 m. *Ostrof*, Buf. Town of 2500 Inhab., in province of Pskof, on river Veliki. The town takes its name, which signifies "island," from an island formed by the Veliki, and on which a fortress existed in the 14th centy. Three of the towers, built of a grey flagstone and red limestone, are still to be seen, together with the church of St. Nicholas in the centre of the island, built in 1582. Ostrof was burnt by the Lithuanians in 1501, when 4000 inhab. perished; and in 1581 it was taken by Stephen Batory. A large trade is carried on in flax, carried hence to Riga, Narva, and St. Petersburg. Travellers sometimes telegraph from here to the hotel at St. Petersburg for a carriage.

171 m. *Pskof*, Buf. Chief town of province of same name, 15,000 Inhab. This was anciently one of the three republics of Russia; the others being Novgorod the Great, and Khlynof (now Viatka). Tradition points to the year 975 as the date of its foundation. It was, like Novgorod, the seat of a great trade with Germany in the earliest times, and formed part of the Hanseatic League. The wave of European civilization and commerce first met the tide of Slavonic barbarism at this point. Commercial prosperity introduced political freedom and much popular turbulence. The citizens of Pskof elected their own princes, deposed them at pleasure, and held incessant *Veché*, or popular councils almost identical with the Witenagemotes of the Saxons. The assembly, convened by a bell, sat on an elevated mound, approached by steps, and on which a club or heavy stick was set up, emblematical of the majesty of the law. There is a record of a Veché at Pskof in which the citizens deliberated in their shirts, so urgent was the danger to their privileged city.

This form of government was retained, as at Novgorod and some other towns, even during the Tartar dominion, but it succumbed at last to the autocracy established by John III. and John the Terrible, who incorporated all the petty principalities of Russia with the Grand Duchy of Moscow. The liberties of Pskof survived those of Novgorod 32 years. Taking advantage of some factious proceedings at the Veché, John the Terrible perfidiously imprisoned the boyars and citizens who had been sent to do him homage at Novgorod, and sent an envoy to the Veché demanding the instant submission of that body. The envoy sat down on the steps of the Veché, and long waited for an answer. The citizens could not speak for their tears and sobs, and asked to be allowed until the morrow for reflection. It was a most dreadful day and night for Pskof. "Infants at the breast," continues the Chronicle, "were the only ones that did not cry for grief. The wailings of the people were heard in the open street and in every house: they embraced each other as if their last hour had come. So great was the love of the citizens for their ancient liberties." But resistance they felt to be useless; and the next day, the 13th January, 1510, they took down the bell of the Veché at the church of the Holy Trinity, and, gazing at it, "long cried over the past and their lost freedom." Three hundred of the most distinguished families were thereupon removed to Muscovy, and replaced by Muscovites.

A town with such a glorious history is well worthy of a visit. It stands at a distance of 2 m. from the rly. stat. and cannot, therefore, be inspected during the 15 or 20 minutes which travellers are allowed there for refreshment. But to those who will hazard the discomfort of a native inn under the protection of a guide, we point out the following objects of curiosity:—

The *Kremlin*, of which the stone walls were built in 1323, occupies an elevation 200 fathoms in length, and 80 in breadth. It faces the river Pskova on the E. and N., and the Velika on the W. Another wall, called Dovmont's Wall, constructed in the latter part of the 13th centy., springs from the southern face of the Kremlin and forms a square, on which once stood the castle or palace of the Prince. There is now but one ancient building in that square,—a house of stone, built in the early part of the 15th centy., by Macarius, subsequently Metropolitan of all Russia, and which was the residence of the Archbishops of Novgorod when they visited Pskof, placed under their ecclesiastical jurisdiction. The huge mass of the *Cathedral of the Trinity* occupies nearly the whole of the interior of the Kremlin. The original ch. on that site is supposed to have been built A.D. 957, by Olga, converted to Christianity at Constantinople two years previously. The cathedral became thus early a centre from which the Christian religion was diffused among the pagan tribes around. The ancient ch. was replaced by a stone edifice in 1138. Dovmont, a Lithuanian chief, was baptized in it, together with his family and followers, in 1266, prior to his election as Prince of Pskof, but that building only lasted till 1363. A third cathedral was built on its foundation in 1368, and lasted long enough to witness some of the most important events in the history of the town. Within its walls, in 1510, John the Terrible caused the citizens to swear allegiance to the Grand Duke of Moscow. In 1581 the cathedral was besieged and stormed by the forces of Stephen Batory, who was repulsed by the defenders of the city, stimulated to valour and enthusiasm by the exhibition of a miraculous image of the Holy Virgin. The Pskovians had "washed the whole floor of the ch. with their tears" before the danger had passed.

The *present Cathedral* was built on the site of those ancient edifices in 1682, but has been much restored since, especially after a fire which

took place in 1770. Its style is Russo-Byzantian, of considerable beauty. Some of the images of saints are ancient and curious, and the traveller will be shown numerous relics. The most interesting of these is the tomb of St. Vsevolod-Gabriel, the ejected Prince of Novgorod, and elected ruler of Pskof, who died A.D. 1138, after leading a life of great virtue and sancity. The Novgorodians demanded his relics, but the coffin would not be moved, evidently expressive of the desire of the departed prince to abide with his faithful Pskovians. Several other miracles are attributed to his remains. A sword, with the inscription, "*Honorem meum nemini dabo*," is shown as having belonged to Vsevolod, who was as warlike as he was godly.

The *cross* which St. Olga raised at Pskof, and which was destroyed by fire in 1509, is represented by a crucifix suspended against the second pillar on the right-hand side of the altar-screen. The lamp which burns in front of it was presented by the Grand Duke Constantine Nicolaevitch in commemoration of the birth of his daughter.

The *tomb of St. Dovmont*, in a chapel to the right of the Ikonostas or altar-screen, is not of silver, like that of St. Vsevolod, but of plain oak. It bears an inscription recording the history of this Lithuanian prince, who appears to have assumed the name of Timothy at his baptism. His sword, frequently wielded in defence of the city, hangs near his tomb. It was held in great reverence by the Pskovians, who invested their princes with it at their consecration in this cathedral. Alongside of this tomb is that of "the sainted Nicholas Salos the Idiot," who saved Pskof from the fury of John the Terrible in the following manner:—Having persuaded the citizens to present bread and salt to the angry Tsar immediately after mass, he rode about on a stick like a child, constantly repeating "Johnny, Johnny, eat the bread and salt, and not the blood of Christians." The Tsar ordered him to be seized, but the saint suddenly vanished. Struck with awe, John the Terrible, entered the cathedral with all meekness, and was met by the clergy carrying the holy crosses. Another version is that Nicholas offered the Tsar a piece of raw meat. "I am a Christian," said John the Terrible, "and do not eat meat in Lent." "But thou drinkest the blood of Christians," replied the saint, while he exhorted the Tsar to be merciful. The tyrant, however, only listened to the warning after the saint had caused his horse to fall, at the moment the bell of the cathedral was ordered to be taken down.

The *sacristy* contains many ecclesiastical antiquities, and some ancient seals and coins of Pskof.

There are several other churches worthy of a visit, each with a legend or tradition of miracles performed to the discomfiture of foreign foes. The interposition of saints appears to have been frequently needed by the good old city. The small chapel opposite the market commemorates the victims of an insurrection which broke out in 1650.

Some of the houses are of ancient date; that occupied by the "*Victualling Department*" once belonged to the Pogankins, a race of merchant-princes now extinct. The tiles of the roof are curious. The Trubinski house is not as perfect a specimen of ancient Russian architecture as it was before a fire which partially consumed it in 1856. Peter the Great visited it.

Travellers should cross the Pskof river and examine the churches and old buildings in the suburbs. Gustavus Adolphus besieged Pskof from that side in 1615. There are several monasteries, rich in ecclesiastical objects of ancient date, beyond the Velika river. A village, 8 m. up the latter river, and called Vybutina, was the birthplace of St. Olga. The fortified monastery of Pskof-Pechersk, celebrated for its catacombs and for the sieges which it has sustained, lies about 20 m. to the W. of Pskof.

Two stations beyond Pskof is *Belaya*, 139 m., Buffet.

85 m. *Luga*, Buff.; chief town of district in province of St. Petersburg.

53 m. *Divenskaya*, Buff.

28 m. *Gatchina*, an imperial residence, founded by Prince Gregory Orloff, and purchased on his decease by Catherine II., who presented it to her son, the Grand Duke Paul. The grounds are very extensive and well laid out, but somewhat neglected, since the palace is rarely, if ever, inhabited. It was built by Prince G. Orloff, after a plan by Rinaldi. The emperor keeps a kennel there, which may be inspected on application to the Master of the Hounds. Many of the pictures which the palace contained have been removed to the Hermitage. The trout of Gatchina, caught abundantly in the lakes and streams by which the park is intersected, appear on every good Russian table. In the ch. are some relics brought from Malta, and in a building, which will be pointed out as the Priory, the Knights of Malta were wont to assemble under the presidency of their Grand Master, the Emperor Paul. Travellers who have time to spare should make this a separate excursion under the guidance of a commissionaire.

St. Petersburg Terminus.

Hotels.—The English or American traveller who prefers home comforts and the use of his native tongue to a foreign mode of life and speech, is strongly recommended to the boarding-house kept by Miss Benson, No. 78, on the English Quay. (*Angliskaya Gostinitsa, Angliskaya Naberejna*). The apartments are quite English in their neatness and cleanliness. The table-d'hôte is well loaded with substantial English fare, varied with dishes taken from the "Dîner à la Russe." The charges vary from rs. 3·50 to rs. 4·50 per diem for bed and board. The waiters understand English, and the worthy and obliging proprietress is ever ready to assist the helpless traveller with her knowledge of the country and its language, and particularly with information respecting the sights of the capital. A commissionaire in attendance.

The other class of tourists, accustomed to foreign hotels, and who can make themselves understood in French or German, should ask for the "Hôtel de Russie" (or Klee's Hotel) ("Gostinitsa Klay"), on the Place Michel, in the centre of the town. This is an old-established house, fashionably frequented. There are about 200 rooms, at 1 to 15 rs. (3*s.* to 45*s.*) per day. A reduction is made if the rooms are taken by the month. Cold, warm, and shower-baths on the premises, as well as the indispensable tub. The traveller should ask for the apartments downstairs, recently fitted up. Dinners by a French cook in separate rooms at 1 r. to 1 r. 50 (3*s.* to 4*s.* 6*d.*). A table-d'hôte at 5 o'clock, 1 r. (3*s.*) English, French, and American newspapers kept. Commissionaires in attendance.

Another hotel, much to be recommended for its cleanliness and cuisine, is the "Hôtel de France," kept by L. Croissant, and situated in Great Morskoy-street, near the Winter Palace. The charge for apartments is from 75 cop. to 15 rs. (2*s.* 3*d.* to 45*s.*). All languages spoken. Baths on the premises.

The other hotels are:—

Hôtel Démouth, near the Police Bridge, close to "Nevsky Perspective," a large and commodious hotel, with an excellent cuisine.

Grand Hotel, Little Morskoi-street. Recently established, and therefore clean.

Hôtel Bellevue, on "Nevski Perspective." Very good, and well recommended.

Hôtel d'Angleterre, opposite St. Isaacs, also very good.

An omnibus from each of the foreign hotels meets the train.

Vehicles.—A crowd of conveyances of every description will be found at

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the station. Miss Benson will send a carriage if telegraphed to, but there is no difficulty in making a Russian coachman drive to the addresses given above. Travellers with much luggage, and unwilling to enter an omnibus, should secure one of the large four-seated carriages driven by a coachman in Russian dress, leaving the price to be settled at the hotel. The small, uncomfortable drojkies will charge 40 to 50 copecks. For sight-seeing or business, engage a carriage at the hotel. The charge is 6 to 7 rs. (18*s.* to 21*s.*) a day, to any hour of the night.

Police Regulations.—The principal police regulation, to which the traveller must pay careful attention, is that which relates to passports (*vide* chapter on Passports). Smoking in the streets, which was once absolutely prohibited, is now permitted, except in the neighbourhood of palaces, on wooden bridges, &c. Notices to that effect, in four languages, will be found in several parts of the town.

History and Topography of St. Petersburg.—The region comprised between Lake Peipus and the Narova river on the one side, and the lake of Ladoga on the other, was anciently called Ingria, and belonged first to Novgorod, then to Moscow, until the year 1617, when it passed to the Swedes, and it was only reconquered by Peter the Great in 1702, who, desiring to have "a window looking out into Europe," laid the foundation of St. Petersburg in 1703, after dispossessing the Swedes of their fort and townlet of Nyenschanz, on the Okhta. The Neva, rising in Lake Ladoga, flows through the city. After receiving the waters of the Okhta river, it disembogues in the Gulf of Finland, separating into many branches and forming several islands. The first branch is called the Great Nevka, and an arm of the latter the Little Nevka. From the point where the Nevka rises the river bears the name of the Great Neva, in distinction to the second branch, which it sends off to the N.W., called the Little Neva. Thus the Bay of Cronstadt receives the waters of the Neva by four channels of considerable volume and breadth, which are further distributed through the city by 4 canals. (*Vide* Plan).

In the spring of 1703 Peter the Great caused a great number of Russian and Finnish peasants to be concentrated on the banks of the Neva for the construction of St. Petersburg, and soon after 40,000 men were drafted annually for several years from the most distant parts of the empire, the Tsar superintending the works in person, and dwelling in a small cottage, still shown. The first private houses were built in 1704 on the N. side of the river, in a part of the town now called Old Petersburg. Elegant houses began to be erected by foreigners in 1705 in a street still called the Millionaya, where the Hermitage at present stands. The large island between the Great and Little Neva was soon after inhabited by the dependants of Prince Menschikoff, to whom Peter the Great gave it. It was called Vassili Ostroff, or Basil's Island, after the name of the commander of a battery placed at the E. extremity of the island. Here Prince Menschikoff erected a palace, now a military school (at the corner of the "1st Line"); and here also rose the "French Colony," a group of pretty houses in which Peter located his foreign workmen, but of which no traces remain. The first brick house was built in 1710, by the chancellor, Count Golofkin, at the spot where the Nevka branches off from the Neva. The Admiralty began to be reconstructed in brick in 1711. The palaces of the Nobles, originally of wood, were soon after replaced by more durable and elegant buildings. Prince Menschikoff erected another residence on the site of the present Senate House. The marshy nature of the soil presented obstacles which were only to be vanquished by the most indomitable energy and perseverance. For many years, every cart and each vessel entering the new town was bound to bring a certain number of stones, which were

used in paving streets. On the death of Peter the construction of St. Petersburg relaxed in vigour, although Catherine I. continued to inhabit the city. Peter II. preferred Moscow, and died there. The Empress Anne fixed her residence at St. Petersburg, and occupied the palace of Count Apraxin, on the site of the present Winter Palace. Many buildings were erected in her reign. The elegant spire of the Admiralty was then added. The soil was raised in places where the river threatened to overwhelm it, and the streets assumed a more regular aspect. Thenceforward the court of Russia settled permanently at St. Petersburg. Successive sovereigns erected monuments, and strove to embellish their new capital. The Empress Catherine caused a quay of granite to be built along the left bank of the rapid Neva, which did not, however, save the capital from inundations in 1728, 1729, 1735, 1740, 1752, 1777, and 1824. On the last occasion the waters rose 13 ft. 4 in. above their ordinary level.

The historical associations of the most remarkable buildings of St. Petersburg will be mentioned in proper order. The traveller who wishes to obtain a more accurate knowledge of the topography of the city is recommended to ascend the dome of St. Isaac's. From here, looking N., he will see the Vassili Ostrof, or Basil Island, and on it the Exchange, the Academy of Sciences, the University, the 1st Military School (or Corps de Cadets), and the Academy of Arts, all facing the river. A little to the left is the Citadel, and beyond it, to the N. and W., are the islands of Aptekarski (with the College of Surgeons), Kamennoi, Petrofski, Krestofski, and Elaghinski. To the E. of the Great Nevka, and the N. bank of the Neva, are barracks, factories, and various government establishments. The communication between the mainland and these islands is limited to three bridges: the Nicholas Bridge, on magnificent granite piers, and elegant iron arches (cast at Baird's works at the mouth of the river); the Dvortsovy, or Palace Bridge, of boats, between the Exchange and the Winter Palace; the Troitski Floating Bridge, between the fortress and the Champs de Mars, and opposite to the British Embassy (on the S. side of the river); and lastly, the Voskresenski Floating Bridge, also of boats. The islands themselves are connected by numerous other bridges: and ferry-boats and small steamers still further complete the means of communication between them.

On the islands, as well as in every other part of the city, may be descried the *watch-towers*, from which strict look-out is kept day and night for fires. They are lofty circular buildings, with an iron apparatus projecting many feet above them, designed for making signals to show in what part of the town the fire has broken out. This is done by hanging out balls by day, and lanterns by night, varying their number and arrangement according to the situation of the conflagration. These towers are the best places for obtaining views of many parts of the capital. In a city built so much of timber as St. Petersburg a fire spreads with the speed of lightning, and the destruction caused both to life and property is frequently fearful.

South of the Admiralty the most important part of the city presents itself, stretching along that bank of the Neva, which for nearly 4 miles pursues a south-westerly course. Here reside the court, the nobility, and more than half the population. The closely built masses of this side of the river are divided into 3 semicircular divisions by the Moika, the St. Catherine, and the Fontanka canals, and these are intersected by 3 principal streets radiating from the Admiralty, —the Neva Perspective (Nevski-Prospekt), the Peas-street (Gorokhovaia-Ulitsa), and the Ascension Perspective (Vosnesenski-Prospekt). As these streets thus diverge from the Admiralty, a person stationed in the lofty gallery of that building may, with the aid of a telescope, see what is going on at their remote extremities. The direction of these 3 great thoroughfares

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and the canals determine that of most of the other streets, of which the most remarkable are the Great and Little Morskaia, the Millionaya, the Meschanskaya, and the Sadovaya, or Garden-street. All the streets are, without exception, broad and convenient, blind alleys and narrow lanes being wholly unknown. They are classed, indeed, in *prospekts*, (formerly streets with 2 rows of trees) *ulitsi*, and *pereuloks* or cross streets, but even these *pereuloks* would be thought in most continental towns quite spacious enough for main streets. They are, however, very badly paved. Beyond the Fontanka, along the banks of which is ranged a succession of palaces, lie the more remote portions of the city, which merge by degrees in the swamps of Ingermanland, or Ingria. To the E., on the rt. bank of the Neva, are the villages of the Great and Little Okhta, and these, with the suburbs on the Ligofka and Zagorodni canals, are peopled by the labouring classes. The front of the Admiralty, towards the vast open space of the same name, is nearly half an Eng. m. in length, and its 2 sides at rt. angles to it, and running down to the river, are 650 Eng. ft. long; one of these sides faces the Winter Palace, the other the "Isaac's Place" and the Senate House. The effect of the light and graceful spire of the Admiralty is very pleasing, but the gallery at its base is greatly disfigured by some emblematical figures in plaster. Over the principal entrance are some gigantic frescoes in relief, emblematical of Russia's power and strength; one of the groups is intended to represent Peter the Great receiving a trident from the hands of Neptune. A considerable portion of the Admiralty is devoted to schoolrooms for naval cadets; the rest is occupied by the civil departments of the navy, and by a naval museum. Only vessels of very small burden are built at the dockyard of the Admiralty, the slips for frigates and ships of that description are lower down the river at the end of the English Quay.

On the S. front of the Admiralty is the noble *Ploschad*, or square, called after it, round which are grouped the chief buildings of the capital; amongst these is the "Hôtel de l'Etat Major," where the Foreign Office and the Department of Customs are likewise located. The War Office stands alongside the Cathedral. The Senate and the Synod flank the Admiralty Place on the W. On the rt., and skirting the river, is the Winter Palace. The circumference of the open spaces, bordered by the public buildings just mentioned, is not much less than an Eng. mile. At one extremity, near the Senate and the Synod, stands the colossal equestrian statue of Peter the Great, while the other is gracefully ornamented by the smooth and polished monolith raised to the memory of the Emperor Alexander I. The quays and the Neva are as much animated by shipping as the streets are by carriages and the canals by passing boats. But, beautiful, regular, and vast as this view of St. Petersburg really is, the traveller will look in vain for anything approaching the picturesque. No buildings are raised above the rest; masses of architecture, worthy of mountains for their pedestals, are ranged side by side in endless lines, and the eye, nowhere gratified either by elevation or grouping, wanders unsatisfied over a monotonous sea of undulating palaces, vainly seeking a point of antiquity or shade on which to repose. This is particularly obvious in winter, when streets, river, and houses are all covered with snow. In spring, when the sun removes the pale shroud from the earth and the waters, the lively green of the painted roofs and the bright cupolas of the chs. enable the eye again to revel in the long untasted enjoyment of colour, while the river gaily mirrors the palaces that grace its banks.

No one can have a just opinion of the daring position of St. Petersburg who has not mounted one of her artificial heights, and viewed the immense body of waters in which she floats like a bark overladen with precious goods,

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while the waves seem as if, deriding her false foundations, they would overturn in a few hours that which the will of man had raised with such untiring labour and energy. When a S.W. wind is lifting the Gulf furiously towards the city, and the Neva, rejoicing in its strength, is dashing along the quays and tossing to and fro the vessels moored close to them, it requires no further evidence to show the stranger what might be the fate of the thousands who inhabit it.

Presuming, therefore, that the traveller has followed our directions, and taken a bird's-eye view of this city of palaces and its suburbs, and made himself generally acquainted with their topographical position, he may descend into the streets, and traverse the bridges, islands, great thoroughfares, quays, and squares, with a view of acquiring more in detail a knowledge of their chief characteristics—the external appearance of the great public buildings, shops, and population; and then take the sights at leisure as they present themselves most conveniently, or as his individual taste may suggest. This plan of a general survey will in some degree satisfy the feeling of restless curiosity consequent upon a recent arrival in scenes utterly strange, and better prepare the mind for the quiet contemplation of the great sights which have subsequently to be examined—no small undertaking in a city where there is so much to see. To a person accustomed to the moving crowds of London or Paris, the frequently quiet and deserted appearance of the vast squares and spacious streets of St. Petersburg is peculiarly striking; and this is owing to the insufficiency of the population to fill the frame allotted to it. Such, however, is not the case in the Nevski, the Regent-street of St. Petersburg, 4 versts (3 m.) in extent, and nearly in a right line. Here all is life and movement, and no ten yards of ground are passed that do not present a scene or a subject that will arrest the attention of the stranger. It has been observed that the Nevski might be called Toleration-street, from the number of churches of divers persuasions in it: Greek, Roman Catholic, Dutch, and Armenian. Here also will be seen the Kazan Cathedral, the Gostinnoi Dvor (the Great Bazaar), and one of the two great national theatres. The houses are magnificent, rising to 3 and 4 stories. The most agreeable hour to promenade the Nevski is the afternoon, when the ladies do their shopping, and the men go to look at the fair purchasers. Pedestrians always prefer the northern side, where the most fashionable shops are situated. The favourite promenade, however, in winter, is the Court Quay.

The pleasure of a walk in the Nevski is qualified in summer by the dust, for there are no water-carts; in winter this inconvenience is not felt, and during that season we think no capital in Europe can present a more singular, and in its way a more magnificent spectacle, than the display of sledges and costumes which crowd this street.

The traveller is referred to the plan for the names of the streets. The principal buildings are also marked on it, and they may be visited in the order in which they are here described.

According to a census taken in 1864, the Pop. of St. Petersburg is 547,422.

Sights of St. Petersburg.

1. *Isaac Cathedral* (dedicated to St. Isaac of Dalmatia).—This edifice cannot fail to excite the admiration of those who appreciate grand proportions, a simple but lofty style of architecture, and noble porticoes. The situation also is highly suitable, for it stands in one of the largest open spaces in the capital, surrounded by its finest buildings and monuments, and it will give the stranger some idea of what Russian quarries, mines, and workmen can produce. Nothing can exceed

the simplicity of the model; no ornament meets the eye; the architect (Mons. Montferrand) has left all to the impression to be produced by stupendous proportions and costliness of material. On the spot where the Isaac Church stands, the Russians had been at work upon a place of worship for the last century. The original one was in wood, erected by Peter the Great in 1710, but this was subsequently destroyed, and the great Catherine commenced another, which was finished in 1801. This edifice vanished, however, in its turn, and the present magnificent structure has been erected in the course of three reigns, having been commenced in 1819, and consecrated 1858. To make a firm foundation, a whole forest of piles was sunk in the swampy soil, at a cost of 200,000*l.*, and a further outlay has recently been made in order to prop up and prevent from sinking that part of the cathedral which faces the river. The present building is, as usual, in the form of a Greek cross, of four equal sides, and each of the four grand entrances is approached from the level of the *Place* by three broad flights of steps, each whole flight being composed of one entire piece of granite, formed out of masses of rock brought from Finland. These steps lead from the four sides of the building to the four chief entrances, each of which has a superb peristyle. The pillars of these peristyles are 60 ft. high, and have a diameter of 7 ft., all magnificent, round, and highly-polished granite monoliths, from Finland. They are crowned with Corinthian capitals of bronze, and support the enormous beam of a frieze formed of six fire-polished blocks. Over the peristyles, and at twice their height, rises the chief and central cupola, higher than it is wide, in the Byzantine proportion. It is supported also by thirty pillars of smooth polished granite, which, although gigantic in themselves, look small compared to those below. The cupola is covered with copper overlaid with gold, and glitters like the sun over a mountain. From its centre rises a small elegant rotunda, a miniature repetition of the whole, looking like a chapel on the mountain-top. The whole edifice is surmounted by a far-seen golden cross.* Four smaller cupolas, resembling the greater in every particular, stand around, and complete the harmony visible in every part. The embellishments of the façade and windows have been intrusted to various artists. The group of figures on the pediment of one of the former was designed by a Frenchman, a Monsieur Le Maire; the subject is the Angel at the Tomb, with the Magdalen and other female figures on the one side, and the terrified soldiers in every attitude of consternation on the other; these bronze figures are 8 ft. in height. The great dome is of iron, and, as well as the whole of the bronze-work, was manufactured at the foundry of Mr. Baird, of St. Petersburg. In the interior of the ch. the malachite columns for the ikonostas, or screen are more than 30 ft. in height, and exceed anything that has yet been done in that beautiful stone. The pillar of lapis-lazuli on either side of the door of the screen is very valuable, 12,000*l.* the two, but has an incongruous appearance next the malachite. The "Royal Door" of the ikonostas is of bronze, and is 23 ft. high by about 15 ft. in breadth. Both the malachite and lapis-lazuli pillars are merely tubes of cast-iron on which the stone has been laid in mosaic work.

The inmost shrine is placed in a small circular temple, the dome supported by 8 Corinthian pillars of malachite, about 8 ft. high, with gilt bases

* We may here correct a popular error respecting the signification of the Crescent, so frequently seen in combination with the Cross on Russian cupolas. It is *not* emblematical of the triumph of the Greek Church over Mahomedanism after the expulsion of the Tartars from Russia, for it was a device used in the earliest Russian churches long before the invasion, and was imported from Byzantium on the introduction of Christianity. The Holy Virgin is represented in the most ancient Greek pictures with her feet resting on a crescent, and the cross subsequently placed over it by the Russian Church is therefore supposed by the Suffragan Bishop of Moscow to typify the issuing of the Cross from the Mother of God.

and capitals; the exterior of the dome is covered with a profusion of gilding on a ground of malachite, and the interior is of lapis-lazuli. The malachite of the 8 pillars weighs about 34,000 lbs. English, and its cost was 25,000*l*. It was worked by Messrs. Nicholls and Plincke of the "English Magazine" at St. Petersburg. The walls and floor are of polished marbles of various colours, which have been found in the Russian dominions, and the whole is raised on steps of polished porphyry. There is, perhaps, too much gilding about this very beautiful work, but this is in accordance with its position in a Greek church. It was presented to the Emperor by Prince Demidoff, who procured the malachite from his mines in Siberia, and sent it to Italy to be worked; its value is said to be as much as 1,000,000 of rubles.

All the pictures on the walls are by Russian artists. Many of them are of mosaic work executed at a manufactory close to the Academy of Arts.

It is from the rotunda over the great dome that the traveller is recommended to view the capital on a bright and clear day; and in this ch. also he should, if so minded, witness some of the ceremonies of the Greek Church. The hours of Divine service are from 6 to 8 A.M., 10 to 12, and from 4 to 6; and on Saturdays from 6 to 7·15 P.M. On holydays of the Church these hours are advanced by 30 minutes. The singing is the most effective portion of the service, and most of the prayers are intoned. The choristers of this cathedral rank in efficiency next after those of the Court Chapel, whose rehearsals may be attended on application to the Director of the School at the "Singers' Bridge." In the ceremonies of the Russian Church, boys, as in our cathedrals, take the soprano parts. Considerable expense is incurred for deep basses, the best voices being everywhere sought for and liberally remunerated. They are not exactly for the choir, but for certain half-recitative solos, occasionally required in the service, and which must always be delivered by amazingly strong and deep bass voices, such as "Gospodi pomilui:" The Lord have mercy! or, Lord we pray thee; Grant this, O Lord, &c. It has somewhat the effect of as many double basses all executing the same short arpeggio passage, and repeating it without any variation in the chord, time, or tone; it is therefore tedious when frequently heard. One of the most impressive portions of the service is towards the close; the doors of the Ikonostas are then shut, the chanting ceases, the incense-bearers withdraw, and every one seems breathless with attention; at length the "Royal doors" in the centre are reopened and thrown back, and the priest, carrying on his head an enormous volume, which he steadies with both hands, comes forward and commences a long recitative: during this every one bends low in a humble attitude of adoration: the large volume contains the Gospels; the prayer is for the Emperor.

In Russia the outward forms of the Greek Church seem to have taken as firm and enduring a hold of the men as of the women, all classes alike participating in this strong feeling of external devotion. The first proceeding of a Russian on entering a church is to purchase a wax candle, a supply of which is generally kept near the door, and the sale of which constitutes a very lucrative traffic; bearing this in one hand, he slowly approaches one of the shrines: at a short distance from it he sinks on one knee, bowing his head to the pavement, and crossing his breast repeatedly with the thumb and two forefingers of his right hand; having at length reached the shrine itself, he lights his votive candle at the holy lamp, and sets it up in one of the various holes in a large silver plate provided for the purpose, and falling low on his bended knees kisses the pavement before the altar. His prayers are few and short, and he retires slowly with his face to the altar, kneeling and crossing himself at intervals.

This kindling of lamps and tapers in Russian churches is a pleasing custom; the little flame is so living a symbol of

the continued life of the soul, and, beyond all other material things, flame is the best representation of the spiritual. The Russians have so closely adopted this idea that there is no interment, no baptism, no betrothing, in short, no sacred ceremony, without lamp or taper; fire is for them the pledge of the presence of the Holy Spirit; and hence illuminations play the most important part in the ceremonies of the Greek Church.

The following extract from the last edition of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' relative to the rites of the Russo-Greek Church, may here be read with advantage.

"The Greco-Russian Church guards vigilantly against the introduction of any doctrine open to the slightest suspicion of heresy, and has its own censorship and journals. It is also very observant of hierarchical subordination. Generally, however, the Russian clergy, although jealous of their dignity, have not the spiritual pride or priestcraft of the Roman Catholic order, attributable no doubt in part to the kindly national character, and in part to the humanizing influence of marriage, which prevents the overwhelming concentration of all the human passions into one single channel. The Greco-Russian Church is mostly antagonistic to the Roman Catholic, and differs from it in the following essential particulars:—1. In not recognizing the primacy of the Pope. 2. In denying that the Holy Ghost proceeds from the Son (*filioque*). 3. In rejecting a purgatory, predestination (except in the omniscience of the Deity), indulgences, dispensations, and works of supererogation, although admitting the intercession of saints by prayer. 4. It holds the necessity of complete submersion of the body at baptism, unless in urgent cases, when even laymen and women may perform it; but they must immerse the infant with the baptismal words, 'In the name of the Father, Son, and Holy Ghost,' if the infant can bear the immersion; if not, then sprinkling or ablution is used. Should the priest arrive in time, he reads the supplementary prayers, and performs the mystery of anointing with chrism. 5. Whilst admitting the doctrine of transubstantiation in regard to the eucharist, it affirms that the holy bread (*προσφορα*) must be leavened; the wine and water being placed in the chalice; and it is only at the prayer of transubstantiation that part of the *agnus* is placed in the chalice. The element of wine with water is alone administered to children up to the age of seven, for fear of the elements being ejected or falling to the ground. 6. Another important distinction is that marriage is obligatory on the secular clergy, although monogamy is a strict tenet of the Church. A priest may continue to serve after his wife dies. 7. No instrumental music is allowed, but vocal music forms a most attractive portion of the service.

"This Church rejects all massive images of the Saviour or saints as idolatrous; but pictures, mosaics, basreliefs, and, in short, all that is represented on a flat surface, is not held a violation of the law which says, 'Thou shalt not make unto thee any graven image!' Broadly stated, and besides some of the preceding tenets, the Greco-Russian religion differs from the Anglican in so far as the latter Church approaches to the Lutheran. The general harmony, however, with the Anglican is greater than with any other church; and several attempts have been made, but not successfully, to unite them, particularly in 1723. Addresses still pass at intervals between the two Churches; and independently of the Irvingites, the ritual of Hatherly's new community at Liverpool so strongly resembles the Greek service that it has attracted the notice of the Russian synod.

"There are four great fasts:—1. Lent, or the great fast, between the carnival and Easter, of seven weeks' duration, and of which the first and last are the most rigidly observed, being more specially devoted to repentance, confession, and preparing for the sacrament; 2. The Petroff,

or Peter's fast, before St. Peter's day, in June, of two to five weeks' duration, accordingly as Easter Sunday falls; 3. The Uspènski, or Conception fast, called by the people the Gospòzinki, from the 1st to 15th August. 4. The Philippoff, or St. Philip's fast, of six weeks before Christmas. The first fast, or Lent, is the most rigidly observed. Besides the above, the Wednesday and Friday of every week are fast-days, and the common people scrupulously keep them all. Catechising and preaching are practised,—the latter frequently, the former at set intervals. Confirmation is not practised, the chrism used at baptism being held to comprise a mystery, rendering that ceremony supererogatory. The Church festivals and saints' days, kept with Eastern splendour, are numerous, and consequently form drawbacks to the business of life, although they greatly relieve the labouring classes.

"The venerative feeling of the people is profound, and they are zealous church-goers, early and late, being due observers besides of all the outward forms of religion, in which the essence is sometimes absorbed. There is, however, much genuine piety to be met with; pilgrimages to monasteries are frequent among all classes; donations, free gifts, offerings, and alms, being liberally bestowed by both rich and poor. There are no entrance-fees, no distinctions for great and little, no pews, no reserved places in Russian churches: the congregation stand: all are equal before God. The Sabbath is not much observed, except as a church-going day. The shops are shut during the hours of worship, but all public places of amusement are afterwards thrown open; visits are made, and business is but little affected by obedience to this salutary ordinance of the supreme lawgiver.

"The Church service is performed in the ancient Church Slavonic, and the lower classes cannot therefore completely follow it, except as a thing they take for granted, although they comprehend its general signification. The Bible, however, is now partly translated into the vernacular Russ. The congregation fervently join in the choral parts, the responses, and the ejaculations. This portion of the service, and the great pomp investing the whole system of worship, together with the procession of banners, pictured saints, and relics, have no doubt been the great means of originally impressing on a rude people the holy awe they entertain for Tsar and Church; which two, with them, are identical. Church service usually consists of the *Vòzglass*, or call to worship; singing of psalms or hymns; the *Ektenià*, a series of prayers, mostly intoned, for the welfare of the Church and her chiefs, for the peace and union of the Christian Churches, and for every separate member of the imperial family; the reading of the epistles and evangel; choral and part singing of unexampled harmony; a sermon, always in the common language, explaining the evangel read; prayers, preparing for the Communion, and during which the priest prepares himself; the consecration of the elements, and the administration of the sacrament, which the clergyman takes every time, and the congregation at will; then, thanksgiving for the sacrament, and parting benediction; the chanting and incense-burning throughout being frequent. Asperging with holy water is also used. The Old Testament is read only during evening service, which is intended to prepare for the morning or principal service, and it therefore has a prophetic tendency, the psalms and hymns being all appropriate. The morning service represents the fulfilment of these prophecies. Service much of the same kind is often performed—sometimes exorcisms too—at private houses, on special occasions; and the remembrance-service, or *Pominki*, forty days after a person's death, is a pious custom; as is that of the yearly visitation of family graves, although this often degenerates into revelling. It is another laudable custom of the Russians to remove their hats, in the streets, before *all* funerals that pass.

Every Russian is obliged to take the sacrament at least once a year.

"The calendar in use is the Julian or Greek, which is twelve days behind the Gregorian or Latin. The antagonism of the two Churches is perhaps the chief objection to a reform in this respect. The superstitious belief of the common people in good and bad spirits, in house-spectres, forest and water demons, is fast dying out, although too much credence is still given to omens and witchcraft."

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2. *Kazan Cathedral*, dedicated to Our Lady of Kazan.

This ch. stands in the Nevski Perspective, and will be easily recognised by its colonnade in imitation of St. Peter's at Rome. It was founded in 1802, and consecrated in 1811, after an outlay of about 600,000*l*. Built on piles, it has the shape of a cross, with a length of 238 ft. between its extremities, and a breadth of 182 ft. The cupola and cross rise more than 230 ft. above the ground. Inside the ch. a colonnade extends in 4 rows from the 4 pillars which support the cupola towards the altar and the 3 principal doors of the cathedral. It consists of 56 monoliths of Finland granite, 35 ft. in height, resting on bronze bases and terminating in Corinthian capitals of the same metal. The ikonostas is of silver, as well as the balustrade in front. An inscription on it states that the silver of which it is made was a "zealous offering of the Don Cossacks," after the campaign of 1812. The name of the Almighty is rendered in precious stones, in the centre of the principal door of the screen; the glory around is only gilt. The miraculous image of the Virgin, brought from Kazan in 1579 and removed to St. Petersburg in 1821, will be seen in the ikonostas, covered with fine gold and precious stones valued at more than 15,000*l*. The huge sapphire was presented by the Grand Duchess Catherine Pavlovna. The other paintings are by Russian academicians. Four immense candelabra of silver stand before the principal altar-screen. The pulpit, the imperial seat, or rather stand, and the floor are of coloured marble, with steps of highly polished jasper.

The *tomb* of General *Kutusoff-Smolenskoi* will be seen under the trophies of wars with France, Turkey, and Persia. He lies buried on the spot where he prayed before setting out to meet the enemy in 1812. The bâton of Davoust, Prince of Eckmuhl, and the keys of many fortresses, are suspended against the pillars of this military-looking cathedral. Among the keys are those of Hamburg, Leipsic, Dresden, Rheims, Breda, and Utrecht.

In front of the cathedral are two well-executed statues; one of Kutusoff of Smolensk, the other of General Barclay de Tolly.

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3. *Winter Palace.*—Having inspected the two nearest and principal churches, the traveller is advised to view the several palaces and their treasures. The *Winter Palace*, the residence of the Emperor and his court during winter, stands on the left bank of the Neva, on the site of a house which in the reign of Peter the Great belonged to his High Admiral, Count Apraxin, who bequeathed it to the Emperor Peter II. The Empress Anne, after being crowned at Moscow, took up her residence in Apraxin's house, but had it pulled down in 1754 and rebuilt by Count Rastrelli, by whom it was completed in 1762, in the reign of the Empress Catherine. A conflagration, which is supposed to have originated in some defect in the stoves, consumed the whole interior of the building in December, 1837, notwithstanding every effort made to save it. It soon,

however, rose again from its embers. In 1839 the Winter Palace was entirely restored. The huge pile is now four stories high, or about 80 ft. The frontage is 455 feet in length, and the breadth 350 feet. The principal entrance, or "Perron des Ambassadeurs," is from the Neva, and leads by a magnificent flight of marble steps to the state apartments of the palace. A gateway in the centre of the building, facing Alexander's Column, opens into a large court. Visitors, after procuring a ticket,* are admitted by an entrance to the right of that gateway. One of the Imperial servants will conduct them through the several apartments, of which the most magnificent are—the Throne-room of Peter I., where the diplomatic corps generally present their congratulations on New Year's Day; the White Hall; the Hall of St. George, a parallelogram of 140 ft. by 60; the Gallery of the Field-marshals, with portraits of those who fought against the French, including the Duke of Wellington; and the Alexander Gallery, with the portraits of the generals who resisted the French invasion in 1812, executed by our countryman, George Dawe. Several rooms will be passed containing pictures of battles in Poland, in Italy, in Germany, and the Crimea. The Englishman may pause at a large picture of the battle of Balaclava, placed in a small dark room, and remember with pride the charge of the gallant six hundred. The battle of Sinope is among the representations of naval engagements in which the Russian flag triumphed. The following is a list of the principal rooms, and a summary of the pictures which they contain :—

Alexander Hall.—1. Portrait of Emperor Alexander I., by *Dawe.* 2. Battle of Kulm, 18th (30th) August, 1813 (Vandamme beaten by Barclay de Tolly). 3. Battle of Leipzig, 6th (18th) August, 1813. 4. Fête Champenoise, 13th (25th) March, 1814. 5. Taking of Paris, 18th (30th) March, 1814—the last four by *Sauerwaid.*

Reserve Room.—I. 1. Battle at Bash-Kadyk-Lar, defeat of the Turks, 19th Nov. (1st Dec.), 1853, by (*W.*) *Willewalde.* 2. Defeat of the Turks at Kuruk-Dar, 27th July (8th Aug.), 1854, by *Baikov.* 3. Taking of a bastion at Varna, 25th Sept. (7th Oct.), 1828, by *Sauerwaid.* 4. Taking of Akaltsykh, 15th (27th) Aug. 1828, by *Sukhodolsky.* 5. Storming of Gunib, where Shamyl was taken prisoner, 26th Aug. (7th Sept.), 1859, by *Grusinsky.* 6. Battle of Poltawa, 27th June (9th July), 1709, by *Kotzebue.* 7. Battle of Kersk, 17th (29th) Sept. 1855, by *Willewalde.* 8. Taking of Akhta, by *Baikov.*

II. 1. Naval engagement off Revel, 9th (21st) May, 1790. 2. Naval engagement off Krasnaya Gorka (near Cronstadt), 23rd May (4th June), 1790. 3. Naval engagement at Wiborg, 29th June (10th July), 1790, all by *Aivazovsky.* 4. Naval engagement off Mount Athos, 17th (29th) July, 1807, by *Bogolubov.* 5. Battle of Navarino, 20th Oct. (1st Nov.), 1827. 6. Destruction of the Turkish fleet at Sinope, 18th (30th) Nov. 1853.—All by *Aivasovsky.* 7. Defeat of the Turkish army at Tcheleti (Asia), by *Prince Maksutov.*

III. 1. Battle of Smolensk, 15th (27th) Aug. 1812. 2. Battle of Valutino, 7th (19th) Aug. 1812. 3. Battle of Borodino, 26th Aug. (8th Sept.), 1812. 4. Battle of Klestizy, 19th (31st) July, 1812. 5. Exploit of General Newerowsky, at Krasnoé, 2nd (14th) Aug. 1812. 6. Battle of Tarutino, 6th (18th) October, 1812. 7. Battle of Malo-Yaroslavitz, 12th (24th) October, 1812. 8. Battle of Polotsk, 7th (19th) Aug. 1812. 9. Battle of Losmin, 6th (18th) Nov. 1812. 10. Battle of Viasma, 22nd Oct. (3rd Nov.), 1812. 11. Battle of Krasnoé, 6th (18th) Nov. 1812. 12. Passage of the Berezina, 16th (28th) Nov. 1812.—All by *Peter Hess.*

* Tickets to view the Palace may be had at the entrance to the Council of the Empire, close to the little canal which rises in the Neva. The servants who show the several apartments should have small fees.

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IV. 1. Taking of Berlin, 28th Sept. (9th Oct.), 1760. 2. Capture of Colberg (Pomerania), 5th (16th) Dec. 1761. 3. Battle of Trebia, 9th (21st) June, 1799. 4. Battle of Novi, 4th (15th) Aug. 1799. 5. Suvorov at the Devil's bridge, 14th (26th) Sept. 1799. 6. Battle of Muttine, 20th Sept. (1st Oct.), 1799. 7. Suvorov crossing the St. Gothard, 24th Sept. (5th Oct.), 1799.—All by *Kotzebue.*

V. 1. Battle of Narva, 17th (29th) Nov. 1700. 2. Capture of Noteborg (Schlüsselburg), 11th (23rd) Oct. 1702. 3. Battle of Gross Jägerndorf, 19th (31st) Aug. 1757. 4. Battle of Zorndorff, 14th (26th) Aug. 1758. 5. Engagement at Züllichau, 12th (24th) July, 1759. 6. Battle of Künersdorff. 7. Suvorov and the Grand Duke Constantine on the Pannix, 1799.—All by *Kotzebue.*

Guard Room.—1. Taking of Otchakov, 6th (18th) Dec. 1788, by *Sukhodolsky.* 2. Battle of Elisavetpol, 13th (25th) Sept. 1826; Abbas Mirza, heir apparent of Persia, beaten by Paskevitch, by the same artist. 3. Death of a young Russian drummer, 18th (30th) March, 1814, by *Reuchlin.* 4. Don Cossacks crossing the Theiss (Hungary), 16th (28th) June, 1848, by *Willewelde.* 5. Taking of Erzerum, 20th June (2nd July), 1829, by *Sukhodolsky.* 6. Taking of Kars, 23rd June (5th July), 1829, by the same.

Dark Room, near the Guard Room.—1. Death of General Moreau at Dresden, by *Steuben.* 2. Battle of Leipzig, by *Reuchlin.* 3. Battle of Balaclava, 13th (25th) Oct. 1854, by *Sukhodolsky.* 4. Death of General Slepzov in the battle near the river Gech, 10th (22nd) Dec. 1851, by *Prince Maksutoff.* 5. Skirmish of Russian and Turkish troops near Sevastopol, by *Willewalde.*

Corridor.—Several battle-pieces by *Bourguignon, T. Parrocel,* and others.

Portrait Gallery.—1. Field-Marshal Prince Volkonsky, by *Krüger.* 2. General Prince Chernycheff. 3. Field-Marshal Prince Wittgenstein. 4. General Prince Orloff. 5. General Count Rüdiger. 6. General Count Kisseleff. 7. Admiral Prince Menchikoff.—All by *Krüger.* 8. Count Nesselrode, Chancellor of the Empire. 9. General Count Benkendorff. 10. General Prince Vassilchikoff. 11. Field Marshal Prince Bariatinsky. 12. Prince Kotchubey, Chancellor of the Empire. 13. Prince A. Galitzin. 14. Prince S. Galitzin.—All by *Bothemann.* 15. General Count Adlerberg. 16. General Count Kleinmichel.—Both by *Krüger.* 17. Field-Marshal Count Berg, by *Simmler.*

Field-Marshal's Room.—1. Taking of Wola, 25th Aug. (6th Sept.), 1831, by *Horace Vernet.* 2. Görgey surrendering the Hungarian army to General Count Lüders, 1st (13th) Aug. 1849, by *Willewald.* 3. Prince Suvoroff, by *Frost.* 4. Count Paskevitch, by *Krüger.* 5. Count Rumianzoff, by *Ries.* 6. Prince Potëmkin. 7. Prince Kutuzov, by *Bakhtine.* 8. Count Dibitsch, by the same.

Hall of Peter the Great.—Peter attended by the Genius of Russia.

The most elegant and glittering apartment is the drawing-room of the Empress, of which the walls and the ceiling are gilded. The light of day can however scarcely do justice to all the magnificence which will be shown to the visitor. The art of illuminating at night is nowhere so well known as in Russia, and candles are still happily preferred to gas. No court in Europe presents such a brilliant appearance as that of Russia seen in the Winter Palace. The arrangements are on the most sumptuous scale, and sit-down suppers are always supplied at a ball, whatever the number of the invited may be. One of the larger halls is sometimes converted into a garden of delicious verdure by the introduction of exotic plants and fruit-trees. On such occasions two rows of tables extend down the room, each overshadowed by a beautiful tree in full leaf, under which the dames and their cavaliers, in groups of eight, partake

of an elegant supper after the fatigues of the waltz and the Mazurka. An Imperial table, raised and apart, commands the whole view.

After passing through the state apartments and galleries the visitor will be taken to see the Romanoff Portrait Gallery, which contains the likenesses of all the Sovereigns of the reigning House since Michael Fedorowitch, and those of their consorts. Peter the Great will be seen suspended in many frames. At the door of this gallery, to the right on entering, observe a green curtain drawn over a tablet. It conceals the rules which Catherine enforced at her *conversazione* in the Hermitage, which begins here. The following is a translation of those rules :—

1. Leave your rank outside, as well as your hat, and especially your sword.
2. Leave your right of precedence, your pride, and any similar feeling, outside the door.
3. Be gay, but do not spoil anything; do not break or gnaw anything.
4. Sit, stand, walk as you will, without reference to anybody.
5. Talk moderately and not very loud, so as not to make the ears and heads of others ache.
6. Argue without anger and without excitement.
7. Neither sigh nor yawn, nor make anybody dull or heavy.
8. In all innocent games, whatever one proposes, let all join.
9. Eat whatever is sweet and savoury, but drink with moderation, so that each may find his legs on leaving the room.
10. Tell no tales out of school; whatever goes in at one ear must go out at the other before leaving the room.

A transgressor against these rules shall, on the testimony of two witnesses, for every offence drink a glass of cold water, not excepting the ladies, and further read a page of the Telemachiade * aloud.

Whoever breaks any three of these rules during the same evening shall commit six lines of the Telemachiade to memory.

And whoever offends against the tenth rule shall not again be admitted.

Beyond this gallery is another long narrow room, in which the traveller will find numerous oil paintings representing St. Petersburg at various stages of construction.

* By Tretiakofsky, an unfortunate native poet, whose muse was thus reviled.

Before going down stairs to see the room in which Nicholas I. died, ask to see the Crown Jewels, deposited in a room on the 2nd floor.

Crown Jewels.—The great Orloff diamond surmounts the Imperial sceptre of Russia, and is a worthy ornament for the emblem of a dominion so extensive. This splendid diamond was an acquisition made in the reign of Catherine II. Its previous history has been represented by stories, not only different, but contradictory. One tradition rife in Russia and the neighbouring Asiatic countries has sought to explain the great difference between the weight of the Koh-i-noor and the original weight of a vast diamond which belonged to Shah Jehaun, with which it was confounded by Tavernier, on the supposition that the Koh-i-noor and a slab now at Kokan are the severed fragments that once combined to form that huge diamond of 793 carats, and it has even been suggested that the Orloff diamond formed once a part of the same stone. Tavernier, however, mentions that this stone was ruined in the process of cutting, while the true history of the Koh-i-noor goes back to at least the time of Baber; whereas Bernier describes the huge diamond alluded to as having been found in Golconda in the time of Shah Jehaun. Furthermore, the Orloff diamond exhibits to a practised eye a faint tint of greenish yellow, while the Koh-i-noor is colourless. The most authentic of the many stories about the diamond appears to be this. It once formed the eye in an idol in a temple at Seringham, near Trichinopoly, in India. Into this temple a French renegade soldier introduced himself in a menial capacity, and took his opportunity to despoil the idol of its precious eye. Escaping to Malabar with his prize, he sold it to a ship's captain for a sum of 2000 guineas, from whom a Jew acquired it for 12,000 guineas. An Armenian merchant, Lazareff (called in one account Schafras), purchased it from the Jew, and offered it for sale at the court of the Russian Empress. Catherine II.

did not accept the terms of the Armenian, and he bore it back to Amsterdam. It was here that the name of Orloff became associated with that of the splendid jewel; for the famous Count purchased it, and laid it as a gift at the feet of his Imperial mistress. The price is stated to have been 450,000 silver rubles, a life annuity of 2000 rubles, and a patent of nobility. Another account makes it a part of the spoils of Nadir Shah, and an ornament in the throne he took from the Mogul Emperor; and the traditional French grenadier in this account escaped with it at the death of that conqueror. This, however, is evidently only an echo or a tradition of the authentic story of Achmet Shah and the Koh-i-noor, and the history as given above would seem to be the most authentic. The English jewellers call the diamond the "Effingham." The word is probably a traditional corruption of the name Seringham.

This stone weighs 194¾ carats (the Koh-i-Noor as it came from India weighed 186$\frac{1}{16}$). It exhibits a flaw in the direction probably of a cleavage plane in its interior, a little way from one of its edges, and a slight feather or black stain in another part of its internal substance. In other respects it is a stone of the greatest beauty, and is the largest, as the Pitt diamond, of France, is the most beautiful, of all the Crown diamonds of Europe.

The Imperial Crown of all the Russias is, as might be expected, adorned with noble jewels. In outline resembling somewhat the dome-formed patriarchal mitre, it carries on its summit a cross, formed of five beautiful diamonds, and supported by a very large uncut but polished spinel ruby. Eleven great diamonds in a foliated arch rising from the front and back of the crown support this ruby and its cross, and on either side of this central arch a hoop of 38 vast and perfect pearls imparts to the Imperial diadem the mitre-like aspect, which may be held to typify the exaltation of the Sovereign into the sphere of the ancient superseded patriarchate. The domed spaces on either side of these arches of pearls are filled with leaf-work and ornaments in silver covered with diamonds, and underlaid by purple velvet. The band on which the crown is supported, and which surrounds the brows of the Emperor, carries 28 great diamonds. The orb is surmounted by a large sapphire, of a rich but slightly greenish blue colour, with a large diamond of the finest water, and of elongated form.

The coronet of the Empress is perhaps the most beautiful mass of diamonds ever brought together into a single ornament. Four of the largest of these stones are of perfect beauty, and beside these are 16 or 18 similar to them, but of somewhat smaller dimensions; there are 70 or 80 other diamonds of no less exquisite water, and the whole are surrounded and set with a great number of stones, fit in point of quality to be associated with them.

Besides these costly emblems of royalty there are several other specimens of jewellery worthy to bear them company. One of these is a diamond necklace, each stone of it worth an argosy, composed of 22 single vast diamonds, from which 15 huge pendent stones are supported.

The plume of Suvoroff, an aigrette composed entirely of diamonds, was one of those gifts which the wealthy but weaker neighbour makes to the man of strength. It was presented by the Sultan of Turkey to the conquering Russian general.

Another of these memorials of the respect entertained for Russia by her Mohammedan neighbours is the unmounted but beautiful diamond presented by the younger son of Abbas Mirza to the Emperor of Russia on the occasion of his visiting the Imperial court. It is named "the Shah." It is a long crystal of diamond weighing 36 carats, and but very little altered by cutting from its original form. It has, moreover, Persian characters engraved on it, and a small groove cut round its end to give attachment probably to the mounting that once may have supported it.

Among the many other curiosities preserved as crown jewels are several strings of truly Imperial pearls, a fine spinel ruby, and an order of St. Andrew, with five pink diamonds and two large Siberian beryls or aquamarines, one of the greenish, and one of the more blue tint, mounted in diamonds.

Room in which Nicholas I. died.—A melancholy interest attaches to this room, which will be shown last to the visitor. On a narrow iron camp bedstead, in the smallest and plainest apartment of the vast Palace, the Emperor Nicholas expired on the 2nd March, 1855. He was suffering from influenza, and had just heard of the unsuccessful attack upon Eupatoria, and his stern, proud spirit refused to submit to any further earthly ills. His gray military cloak lies folded on the hard bed. His sword and helmet are where he left them. On the table is the report of the Quartermaster-General on the strength of the Household troops, delivered to the Emperor on the morning of the day he died. The simplicity around is that of the barrack-room. The elegance of art and the luxury of civilization are alike absent. The appurtenances of the toilet, still in their place, are few and simple. A peculiarity of habit will be observed in the pocket-handkerchiefs, which lie on every available article of furniture. A Grenadier of the Golden Guard of the Palace is always on duty over these relics of the "never-to-be-forgotten Tsar."

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4. *The Hermitage.**—This gallery and museum was founded by Catherine the Great, originally in a small pavillon attached to the Winter Palace, and built by Vallin de la Motte, a French architect, in 1765. The Pavillon was intended by the empress as a refuge from the cares and duties of government, and hence was called the Hermitage. Her leisure moments and her evenings were spent there in conversation with philosophers, men of letters, and artists. Ten years later Catherine caused the second part of the Hermitage to be built by Velten, for the reception of pictures. It was united to the Pavillon by an arch in the form of a bridge. The Theatre of the Hermitage was added in 1780, and joined to the other parts of the building by an arch thrown over a small canal at a point where the Moïka rises in the Neva. But the Hermitage as it at present stands was entirely reconstructed by Leo von Klenze, of Munich, between 1840 and 1850. The architect selected the Greek style in preference to that of the Renaissance, which would have been more in keeping with the buildings in the immediate vicinity; but for elegance, purity of architectural forms, and for the beauty as well as costliness of the materials employed, this museum has scarcely any equal in Europe. It forms a parallelogram 515 ft. by 375, with two large courts, and is approached by a noble vestibule, supported by ten figures, of a hard grey granite, measuring 22 ft. with their pedestals. Statues of celebrated painters, sculptors, and other artists, ancient and modern, fill numerous niches in the walls, to which an excellent appearance of stone has been given. The roof of the hall is supported by 16 columns, monoliths of the finest granite from Finland, terminating in capitals of Carrara marble. The stairs, in three flights, are of marble, but the walls on either side are only scagliola. A gallery runs round the top of the staircase, adorned with twenty monoliths of grey granite. In this stand 16 marble statues: Cain and Abel, by Dupré; a Bacchante, by Bienaimé; and others. Two magnificent stands for candelabra of the finest violet jasper from Siberia stand at the doors at each end of the gallery.

* Admission gratis. The Hermitage is closed the whole of July and August (old style) as well as on all great holydays, but at any other time is open daily, except on Fridays, between February and July from 10 a.m. to 4 p.m., and from September to February between 10 a.m. and 3 p.m. But even on Fridays, or during the months of July and August, exceptions to the rule will be made by the Director in favour of the traveller.

It is advisable to begin with the picture galleries on the first floor, leaving the museums below for a subsequent visit.

First Floor.

Picture Galleries.—The Hermitage Gallery is chiefly composed of three celebrated collections.—1. That of Mr. Crozat, Baron de Thiers. 2. The Walpole Collection, purchased in 1779 for 35,000*l.* The best pictures* in the gallery are from Houghton Hall; viz., 89 Italian, 75 German, 7 Spanish, and 5 English. 3. Eleven pictures from the Choiseul Gallery, purchased for 107,904 livres. Many other additions have subsequently been made. Thirty-eight pictures of the Malmaison Collection, formed by the Empress Josephine, were bought in 1814 for 940,000 francs, many of them having belonged to the Landgraves of Hesse and Cassel, spoliated by the French in 1806. The Spanish Gallery of Mr. W. G. Coesvelt, banker at Amsterdam, was acquired in 1814 for 8700*l.*; and Dr. Crichton, an English resident at St. Petersburg, afterwards knighted, sold to this gallery seven of the pictures in his collection. On the death of the Queen Hortense of Holland, thirty of the best pictures of the collection passed over to the Hermitage for the sum of 180,000 francs. The Barbarigo Collection was purchased by the Emperor Nicholas in 1850, as well as some fine pictures from the celebrated gallery of the late King William II. of Holland. From the Soult Collection the Hermitage possesses a Sebastian del Piombo (No. 17), a Zurbaran (349), and a Murillo (373). The most recent additions are the fresco pictures purchased by Mr. Guédéonoff in 1861, at the same time as part of the Campana Museum.

The Hermitage Gallery at present contains 1635 pictures, selected from amongst more than 4000 specimens, the remainder being distributed in the several palaces. The Italian school is represented in the gallery by 331 pictures, the Spanish by 115, the Flemish, Dutch, and German by 944, the English by 8, the French by 172, while the specimens of native art are 65 in number. It is more especially rich in the Spanish and Flemish Collections, having no less than 20 Murillos and 6 Velasquez, 60 Rubens, 34 Van Dycks, 40 Teniers, 10 Van der Helsts, 41 Rembrandts, 50 Wouwermans, 9 Potters, 40 Jacob Ruysdaels, and an equal number of Snyders. This is, moreover, the only gallery on the Continent that contains a collection of English pictures.

The Hermitage Collection was carefully examined and brought into its present perfect order in 1861 and 1862 by the learned and celebrated critic Dr. Waagen, of Berlin, whose work, 'Die Gemäldesammlung in der Kaiserlichen Ermitage zu St. Petersburg' (Munich, 1864), contains most valuable information respecting the pictures of the Hermitage.

The rooms in which the pictures are placed are described in the order in which they should be visited.*

The Gallery of Historical Painting at the top of the staircase need not arrest much attention. The frescoes on the walls represent the progress of Grecian art. There are eight good specimens of modern sculpture by Vitali, Göthe, Houdon (Madame Du Barri as Diana), Bienaimé, and others. The vases and tables of porphyry and malachite are as it were an introduction to the magnificent specimens inside.

Room II.—(The numbers are marked over the inner doors in Roman numerals: *vide* plan.) Larger pictures of *Italian School.* (Beginning opposite the door leading from the staircase.)

* The letter W. will denote these whenever occur in the observations that follow.

* The 'Catalogue de la Galerie des Tableaux,' by Baron de Kœhne, may be had of the porter, and very good photographs of the best pictures may be procured from M. Rœtjer, Court Bookseller, Nevsky, No. 5.

No. 69, Holy Virgin, by Francia.* 73, St. Sebastian, by Luini. 145, Dead Christ attended by Angels, one of the few pictures by Paul Veronese painted with any sacred feeling. 18, Descent from the Cross, a rare picture of great value by Sebastian del Piombo, purchased for 29,000 florins, from collection of late King of Holland. 59, Adoration of the Shepherds, by Garofalo. 61, Christ carrying his Cross, by same artist, life-size figures, with very fine and characteristic heads. 89, Portrait of an Artist, by Domenico. 135, Perseus and Andromeda, a very fine Tintoretto; the figure of Andromeda for colour and beauty of form is equal to the finest effort of Titian. 121, Jupiter and Io, by Schiavone, remarkable for its landscape background. 133, the Resurrection, by Tintoretto; original design, in small proportions, of the enormous picture at Venice, and illustrative of his later decorative style. 181, David with the head of Goliath, by Guido Reni, with dark shadows in style of Caravaggio. Above it, 166, Christ being anointed for the Sepulchre, a fine specimen of Lodovico Caracci (W.). 187, Dispute of the Doctors, a capital picture by Guido Reni, of which the engraving by Sharp is so well known (W.). 180, Cupid, by Domenichino. 184, Repose in Egypt, and 185, Saint Francis, are beautiful works of the same period by Guido: the expression of trust and repose, the harmony, clearness, and warmth of the colour, render 184 one of the most attractive of that artist's pictures. 191, the Virgin at School, also by Guido, is much admired for the grace and childlike innocence of the group engaged in needlework. There are 11 pictures by Salvator Rosa in this room, 5 of which, 220 to 223 and 225, are from the Wal. Coll. No. 220, the Prodigal Son, was one of the treasures of that gallery. 215, Ecce Homo, by Caravaggio, painted in a colder tone than his Young Man singing and playing the Guitar (217), which is more transparent in the shades than usual with that master. 236, Portrait of an Actor, by Domenico Feti. 319, Doge of Venice marrying the Adriatic, by Canaletto. 318 (pendant to 319) represents the Reception at Venice of Count Gergi, Ambassador of Louis XV., a magnificent and most interesting work by that master. 307, Portrait of Pope Clement IX. by Carlo Maratta (W.). 317 (above), the Feast of Cleopatra, who is seen dissolving the Pearl, by Tiepolo, one of the best and largest pictures of that artist. 255, St. Cecilia, by Carlo Dolci, in the style of the famous picture in the Dresden Gallery, but superior to it in the pleasing drawing of the head; and 254, St. Catherine, also by Carlo Dolci; heads very well drawn.

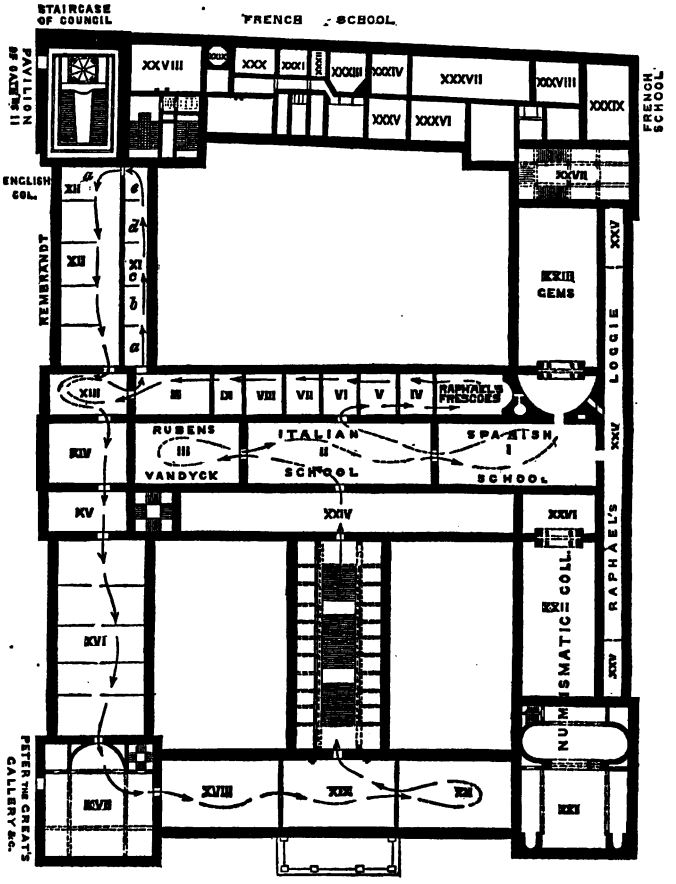
The malachite tables and vases are very handsome. The 4 candelabra are of violet jasper.

Room III.—*Flemish School.* The collections of this School begin appropriately with rich and numerous specimens of Rubens and Van Dyck, of which many of the best come from the Walpole Collection.

Beginning on the rt. hand: 543, Mary Magdalene washing the Saviour's feet, is the principal picture, by Rubens, in the Hermitage (W.); there is a copy of it by Jordaens in the next room. 535, the Expulsion of Hagar, a perfect gem, by Rubens; a sketch of this same picture is in the Grosvenor Gallery. 626 is a portrait that will interest every Englishman; it is that of Inigo Jones, by Van Dyck (W.). 616, Portrait of Philip Lord Wharton at the age of 19, by Van Dyck (W.). 612, Archbishop Laud, by the same artist (W.). 633 and 634 are portraits of English ladies by the same great master. 627, Portrait of the painter Snyders and his Wife. On the same wall is, 576, Portrait of Helen Fourment, Rubens' second wife,

* It will suffice in most cases to mention the number of the picture and the painter to whom we desire to attract attention. Criticism may be considered out of place in a handbook; the traveller will form his own judgment of these works of art, but at the same time we shall endeavour to point out the most remarkable pictures, with the addition of any information that may make them interesting to Englishmen.

PLAN OF THE PICTURE GALLERIES AT THE HERMITAGE.



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by her famous husband. This most graceful full-length figure is frequently copied; the same head will be found in the picture called the Chapeau de Paille in Sir Robert Peel's collection (W.). Very close to it on the rt. is, 609, King Charles I., signed "p. Sr. Ant. Vandike;" for this picture Van Dyck received 25*l.* 610. Queen Henrietta Maria is the *pendant* to it, both being from the Houghton Collection. 603 is the celebrated Vierge aux Perdreaux, by Van Dyck, so called from the two partridges seen flying away. The beauty of the group of children is remarkable (W.); 618, above the portrait of Henrietta Maria are portraits of the Ladies Elizabeth and Philadelphia Wharton, also by Van Dyck (W.). The grim figure of the Earl of Danby, painted by the same master, will be seen in 615 (W.). 617, Sir Thomas Wharton, by Van Dyck (W.). 635 is Rubens' Wife and Child, painted by Van Dyck; compare it with 575 (near the door on entering), Rubens' wife at a later period, painted by Rubens; the dress and gold chain are the same in both pictures. 611 is a pleasing portrait of William II. of Nassau, Prince of Orange, when a boy, by Van Dyck (W.). 549, Venus and Adonis, a repetition by Rubens of the picture on panel at the Hague. 551. a Bacchanalian Scene, by the same artist, is in his most spirited style; the satyrs are such as only Rubens could have imagined (W.). 620, Portrait of Sir Thomas Chaloner, by Van Dyck (W.). 632, Portrait of a gentleman, by Van Dyck, is a fine specimen of his warmest colouring, probably painted at Genoa. 614 is a sketch by Van Dyck of the celebrated large picture of the Pembroke Family at Wilton; the Earl of Carnarvon has another sketch of it. 629 is a fine portrait by Van Dyck.

There are 2 candelabra and 3 tazza of violet Siberian jasper in this room.

Room I.—*Spanish School.* The best and most varied collection of Spanish pictures out of Spain. On the left-hand wall there are no less than 18 pictures by Murillo. Begin with 369, the Holy Family, a perfect little gem, but obscured by the shadow which falls from its heavy frame (W.). 375, Celestine and her Daughter in prison at Seville. 364, Adoration of the Shepherds; interesting sketch and variation of the same subject in the Gallery at Seville. 360, Benediction of Jacob; its *pendant*, 359, Jacob's Dream, is perhaps one of the most picturesque productions of the artist. 372, Angel delivering St. Peter; from the Soult Collection. Under it is one of the most lovely inspirations of this great artist, the Repose in Egypt (367). 365, St. Joseph. 379, St. John, a contemporaneous copy of the celebrated picture in the National Gallery in London. 378, a Peasant Girl, and 377, a young Beggar, are *pendants*. 363, Adoration of the Shepherds, a specimen of the early style of the master (W.). 362, the Conception, treated in the same grand manner as the large picture at Seville. Leaving the Murillos for the present, look at 349, St. Lawrence, a very characteristic specimen of Francisco Zurbaran; but a rarer and more pleasing example of the master will be seen in 348, representing the Holy Virgin as a child. 397, a sleeping Child, is by Antolinez, in the clear tender tones of Murillo. 371, the Assumption by Murillo (W.). In this beautiful picture the Virgin has the same youthful form as in the celebrated picture of the Sala Isabella at Madrid, to which for grace and purity of expression it yields in nothing, while the action of floating in mid-air, and the effect of immense depth beneath the buoyant clouds on which the lovely group of children are borne upwards with the Virgin, were never better rendered. 373, Apparition of the Infant Jesus to St. Francis of Padua, must conclude our mention of the pictures by Murillo. The best of Velasquez's, out of the 6, are 419 and 420, Portraits of Philip IV. of Spain, and 421 and 422, those of his Minister, d'Olivarès. The full-length portraits came here from the Hague. 418, Pope Innocent X., is a spirited portrait, also by Velasquez, from the

Walp. Coll. 331. Death of St. Sebastain, by Ribeira.

The stands for candelabra of large masses of rose-coloured porphyry or rhodonite, and vases, tazza, and tables of lapis lazuli in this room, are remarkably handsome.

Raphael's Frescoes.—The nine frescoes in this room (which may be entered from the gem-room) were until 1856 on the walls of the ground-floor of the Villa Mills (Villa Spada) on Mount Palatine, at Rome. They were purchased with the Campana Museum in 1861. Mr. Guédéonoff, the talented purchaser of that collection for the Russian Government, considers these fine paintings to have been executed by Raphael and his pupils between the years 1512 and 1515. The great master probably made the sketches and only superintended the painting.

Professor Waagen considers that Nos. 47, 48, 49, 51, and 53 are by the hand of Giulio Romano. The Abduction of Helen (No. 55) is a celebrated composition, frequently repeated on majolica, as seen in the Campana collection in the Louvre, in the Bernal collection at the British Museum, and in Mr. Abingdon's collection. Waagen says it must have been painted by one of Raphael's best scholars, for it was a favourite subject with the great master, as evident from the drawings at Chatsworth and Oxford. It was detached from the wall of Raphael's villa near the Porta Pinciana.

Room IV.—1, Holy Virgin, by Verocchio, marks the early epoch of the Italian School, as also does 2, another Holy Virgin, by Roselli. No. 8, Infant Jesus, by Lo Spagna. The most flourishing period of Italian painting is represented in the following: No. 24, Holy Family, a very fine picture by Andrea del Sarto, superior to the duplicate in the National Gallery. No. 17, Christ carrying his Cross, by Sebastian del Piombo, on slate; one of the finest pictures from the Soult collection. No. 19, Portrait of Cardinal Pole, by the same artist. The Florentine School is well supported by No. 14, the Holy Family, by Leonardo da Vinci; this bears a striking resemblance to Foster's well-known "Vierge au bas-relief." But the oldest and finest picture by this master has just been purchased of the Duke di Litta of Milan:—14*a*, "The Holy Virgin suckling the Infant Jesus" (on a stand near the window). No. 15, Portrait of a lady, by the same painter (W.). No. 22, Nativity of Jesus, by Granacci; one of his best works.

One of the most remarkable objects in this room is an unfinished sketch of a small crouching figure in marble by M. Angelo, called the Tour de Force, evidently rough hewn from the stone, without model or preparation. That a figure of this size could be produced from a small block of marble, not larger than would be required for a full-sized bust, is extraordinary enough; but the position seems purposely to have been chosen by that great genius, in sport as it were with the greatest difficulties; while at the same time it may have served to display his knowledge of the Torso of the Vatican, or his idea of the original position of that celebrated fragment. It is also said to be the result of a wager.

Room V. is attractive on account of its Raphaels. On a stand near the window will be seen a beautiful little picture (39), by that great master, representing St. George and the Dragon: it was painted in 1506 by order of the Duke d'Urbino, who wished to present it to Henry VII. of England, in return for the Order of the Garter. It was first in the Pembroke Gallery, then in that of Charles I., and was purchased by the Russian Government with the Crozat Collection. It long served as an image in the Hall of St. George, at the Winter Palace. No. 37, Holy Virgin, painted in Raphael's Florentine style, and known as the "Ste. Famille au St. Joseph imberbe," p. in 1507. No. 38 is the celebrated Virgin de la Maison d'Albe. No. 40, a remarkable portrait by Raphael, incorrectly called that of Sannazaro. No. 74 is the portrait by Luini variously termed "the

Columbine," "Flora," and "Vanity," and well known to the lovers of art: from the Hague, where it passed as a Leonardo da Vinci. No. 82 is a small sketch for the ceiling of the cathedral at Parma, by Correggio. Another picture by Correggio will be found in No. 82*a*, "Marsyas and Apollo," by Correggio, one of the four pictures of the Litta collection recently purchased.

Room VI.—112, Judith, by Moretto da Brescia, of whom it is one of the finest specimens. 113, Faith, by the same artist. 101, Portrait of Pope Paul III., by Titian.

Room VII. contains the celebrated Titians, from the Barbarigo collection:—98, Mary Magdalen. 99, Toilet of Venus. 100, Danaë, from the Crozat collection. There are also some fine sketches (Nos. 142, 149, and 150) by P. Veronese.

Room VIII. 174, Christ in the Garden of Olives, by Caracci. 177, A young girl sleeping, by the same; very carefully painted, and evidently from nature. 176, Portrait of Annibale Caracci, by the artist himself, on a panel which had been destined for another subject. Through the transparent dark colour of the background may be seen the outlines of a life-sized head. 192, Beatrice Cenci, repetition after Guido. 224, Portrait of a poet, by S. Rosa. 218, Portrait by Caravaggio. 223, three soldiers playing at dice, very characteristic of S. Rosa. 264, Betrothal of St. Catherine, by Procaccini, suggestive of Etty. The tazzas near the window are of syenite and aventurine; the one in the centre of the room is of jasper.

Room IX. 289, Pretty head of a boy, by Luti (W.); resembles a drawing in pastel, for which this artist is chiefly known. 257, Holy Virgin, by Sassoferrato. 260*a*, Head of the Madonna, likewise by Sassoferrato. 309, St. Sebastian, by Balestra. There are several pictures by C. Maratta and Schidone in this room. The small marble statue of a Cupid, with an arch look, is by Falconet, whose masterpiece is the equestrian statue of Peter the Great in the Isaac's Square.

Room X. is the last of the Italian School, and is called the Cabinet of Luca Giordano, the painter of the large picture, 293, Bacchus asleep (W.), and of 294, the Judgment of Paris (W.). 229 and 230 are marine pieces, by Salvator Rosa. 320, the Rialto, by Belloti, is quite worthy of his cousin, Canaletto.

Room XI. *Early German and Dutch Schools.*—The portrait of Sir Thomas Gresham, the founder of the Royal Exchange, by Sir Antony More (480), will be of interest to the English visitor; it is, moreover, one of the best specimens of that painter. 481 is Lady Gresham, by the same artist (W.). 444, the Crucifixion and Last Judgment, by Christophsen. 445, St. Luke, a very good, though solitary, specimen of Memling. 449, Coronation of the Holy Virgin, by Quentin Matsys. 443, the only specimen of Jan Van Eyck, The Salutation, Waagen says, must have been painted between 1433 and 1434, for it bears a great resemblance to the picture by the same artist in the National Gallery, and which is known to have been painted in 1433. 466, a Portrait, by Holbein. 467, Portrait of Edward VI. of England, is either a copy or a repetition of Holbein. It was once in Charles I.'s collection, and was purchased by Lord Walpole on the death of that monarch, whose enlightened judgment and taste for art were so remarkable, that, if his gallery had remained the property of the nation, we should have possessed the finest museum of pictures in the world. Nineteen of the best pictures in the Louvre, 44 of the most valuable in the Museo at Madrid, three or four in the Belvedere collection at Vienna, and the two in the Hermitage, will give some idea of the treasures we have lost.

Room XII.—*Potter, Teniers, Wouvermans.* Paul Potter.—1055, Watch

Dog, the perfection of animal portraiture; the brilliancy of the eye, and the texture of the dog's matted coat, are admirably rendered; for freedom of treatment it offers a remarkable contrast to the careful finish of 1051, and the bold large signature on the kennel shows that the artist was not ashamed of it. 1058, Bull. 1059, a little Boy looking at a white Horse. 1056, Landscape, a beautiful study of trees and plants, with a charming peep of distant landscape; the figures in the sunlight and those in the shade, equally good; the latter are fishing, and a perch can be distinguished in the net. 1051, the Farmyard, considered to be Potter's masterpiece, signed 1649; a picture of inestimable beauty and value, displaying in perfection every quality for which this great painter was remarkable. 1052, the Hunter's Life. This will be found one of the most amusing pictures in the gallery: in 12 compartments it represents different sporting subjects, and in 2 others the ultimate revenge of the animals on the cruelty of man: 1, St. Hubert; 2, Coursing; 3, Diana and Actæon (painted by C. Poelenburg); 4, Chamois-hunter; 5, Ferreting; 6, Bear-hunt; 7, Leopard about to spring into a trap, attracted by his own reflection in a looking-glass placed within it; 8, Catching Monkeys by means of a dish of gum-water, with which they glue their eyes in imitation of men washing; 9, Wolf-hunting; 10, Boar-hunt; 11, Lion-hunt; 12, Bull-baiting. The upper centre compartment shows the hunter caught and brought to judgment before the lion, who presides, surrounded by his counsellors; the fox acting as clerk. The bear performs the office of head constable, and a wolf on each side of the huntsman keep him in safe custody. A bear and a boar are bringing up two braces of hounds, the accomplices of man, while the stag stands proudly waiting to give evidence. The sentence of death is carried out in the lower division, where the hunter is being roasted over a fire, and basted by a boar and a goat, while 2 bears turn the spit. A monkey and an elephant are bringing up faggots; the wolf and the fox meanwhile hanging two of the accomplices. A monkey on the top of the gallows acts as assistant executioner. The joy of the animals at their deliverance is wonderfully portrayed; the goat is cutting capers, and the wolf rolling on the ground with laughter and delight. 1053, the Hunter's Halt. 1054, the Cows, and 1057, a Landscape. There are 9 specimens of Paul Potter in the Hermitage; 1051, 1052, and 1055 are from the Malmaison Collection.

Teniers.—699, Kitchen seized by Monkeys. 672, the Arquebusiers of Antwerp. The figures are mostly portraits of the period; Teniers himself is being admitted member of the corps. Between these two screens will be found every description of picture that Teniers painted—landscapes, cattle, historical portraits, and even a seapiece (710). 669 and 670 are landscapes by Teniers the elder. 708 and 709, in circular frames, by the younger Teniers, are pleasing subjects, charmingly treated. 673, the Guardhouse, painted 1642; 677, the Wedding Banquet; 674, Village Fête, are all by the same master-hand, as well as the large picture, 698, Interior of a Kitchen; the artist appears here as the landlord (W.). (679, 688, and 706 are also from Walp. Coll.).

Wouvermans.—These are too numerous to be particularised. 1031 and 1032 are perfect gems. The pictures by Wouvermans in the last compartment are equally good. 1017 is one of the few pictures known of that artist without a white horse. They are all well worth examination.

After inspecting Room XII. the visitor will do well to relieve the eye by proceeding to gaze on other objects. A door in the next room, XIII., opens on the staircase of the Council of the Empire. An immense vase of malachite stands at the top of the stairs. The door to the right leads to the apartments of the old Hermitage (French gallery—reached from the Gem room). The door on the left opens into a gallery, beyond which is a small ball-room of white marble, fitted up in the most exquisite taste.

This is the original Pavillon built by Catherine II. Light galleries of gold trellis-work, supported by elegant white columns, run round this beautiful room, which was designed by Mr. Stakenschneider, court architect. The style is Renaissance, with an admixture of the Moorish and antique. A portion of the floor is inlaid with mosaic. Two marble fountains, after the model of a celebrated fountain at Bakhchisarai, in the Crimea, stand at the further end of the room. The water, when laid on, falls from one shell into the other with the most delicious murmur. Glass doors open into a conservatory of exotic plants. Balls are given here in winter to a limited number of guests. The view of the river from the windows is most charming. A portrait of Catherine II., by Lampi, the best ever made, is suspended in this room, together with that of the consort of the Emperor Paul, by Mme. Lebrun.

Room XIII. *English School and Rembrandt's Gallery.*—The first small compartment is devoted to English pictures. Conspicuous amongst these is 1391, the Infant Hercules strangling the Serpents, painted for the Empress Catherine II. by Sir Joshua Reynolds. It is an allegory of Russia vanquishing the difficulties which beset its youthful state. This picture, finished two years before his death, was painted by order of the Empress Catherine, whose commission was unlimited both in subject and in price. The price paid for it was 1500 guineas. Soon after the picture arrived at St. Petersburg, Count Woronzow, the Russian ambassador, waited on Sir J. Reynolds to inform him that the empress had received the picture, as well as two sets of his Discourses, one in English and one in French, which, at the desire of H. I. M. had been sent with the picture. This message was accompanied by a gold snuff-box, with the empress's portrait encircled with large diamonds. The ambassador also left with Sir Joshua a copy of the following letter:—

"Monsieur le Comte Woronzow—I have read, and I may say with the greatest avidity, the Discourses pronounced at the Royal Academy of London by Sir Joshua Reynolds, which that illustrious artist sent me with his large picture; in both productions a most elevated genius may easily be traced. I recommend you to give my thanks to Sir Joshua, and to remit to him the box I send as a testimony of the great satisfaction the perusal of his Discourses has given me, and which I look upon as perhaps the best work that ever was written on the subject. My portrait, which is on the cover of the box, is of a composition made at my Hermitage, where they are now at work about impressions on the stones found there.

"I expect you will inform me of the large picture of the subject of which I have already spoken to you in another letter. Adieu—I wish you well. (Signed) Catherine. St. Petersburg, March 5, 1790."

The large picture here referred to may be No. 1392, the Continence of Scipio, which was probably sent to St. Petersburg after his death, as it is still in an unfinished state. This may be seen in the arms of Scipio and in the hands of another figure, which show in an interesting manner Sir Joshua's mode of painting; the shadows being laid on in a green tone, preparatory to the warm glazing with which he so successfully imitated the glowing tones of the Venetian School. 1393, Dido and Æneas, in a landscape equal to one of Wilson's finest, by Thomas Jones (1730-1790). 1390, Cupid unloosing the Girdle of Venus. This picture, painted for Prince Potemkin for 100 guineas, is the portrait of a pretty Englishwoman, whose obliquity of vision is artfully concealed by the position of her hand. There are two repetitions of this picture in England. 1389 is an interesting portrait of the sculptor Grinling Gibbons, by Sir Godfrey Kneller, who also painted 1388, a likeness of Locke; both from the Walpole Collection. 1387, Portrait of Abraham Van der Dort, by Dobson (W.); and 1386, Oliver Cromwell, by Robert Walker (1600-1658).

The pictures arranged on the remaining screens in Room XIII. now claim attention: they are chiefly by Rembrandt. We particularise some of the finest, but all are worthy of attention. Nowhere can this great master be studied with so much advantage, since here are found specimens of every period and subject of his art. 828 and 827, two portraits side by side, show his earliest and his latest style, the former bearing the date 1634, and the latter 1666. 806, 825, 823, and 821 are a series of equally characteristic heads. 803, the "Benedicite," or Grace, a small cabinet picture of great simplicity, and full of reverential feeling. 802, Danaë: though unfortunate in his model, Rembrandt has produced in this unique picture a chef-d'œuvre of execution. 771 and 772 are excellent specimens of Franz Hals. The following are all by Rembrandt:—808, Lieven van Copenol, the celebrated calligraphist, a highly-finished portrait of the same period as that of the "Lesson of Anatomy" at the Hague; 818, one of his noblest portraits, very badly hung; its vis-à-vis, 809, which suffers from the same cause, is a fine classical head, called indifferently Joan of Arc or Minerva; 805, an old woman, an admirable portrait in his freest style—the hands, executed with a freedom which borders on coarseness, appear highly finished when viewed at a proper distance; 797, Return of the Prodigal Son, though painted in a coarse decorative manner, tells its story with much pathos; beneath it is a bold landscape, 830, and, on the opposite screen, a marine piece, 831, very warm and transparent, probably left uncompleted by Rembrandt, for the foreground seems to be finished by an inferior hand; 817, a beautifully-coloured small female head; 798, the parable of the Lord of the Vineyard, a remarkable sketch in brown glaze, the principal figure a highly-finished miniature; 816, head of an old man in profile, a masterpiece of free handling—observe the effect produced by the use of the sharpened stick of the brush in the treatment of the beard; 826, Child at a Window—this picturesque genre portrait is a fine study of *chiaroscuro;* 796, the Holy Family, was valued by Smith at 2000 guineas; 800, Descent from the Cross by Night, an admirable composition, replete with sentiment and mystery; 807, Rembrandt's Mother, a highly-finished cabinet picture; 799, Peter denying Christ, another striking candle-light effect; 811, a most characteristic portrait in this master's best style—it was long, but erroneously, supposed to be that of Stephen Batory, or John III., Sobieski, of Poland; the *pentimenti* or alterations in the position of the baton held in his hand, are evidence of the care bestowed on this picture; 810 passes for the likeness of old Thomas Parr—it is in his latest style, but Rembrandt, instead of showing symptoms of weakness, appears to have become more daring with age, to judge from the *impasto* and the masterly treatment of this fine portrait—it hangs unfortunately too much in the dark to be seen with advantage (another portrait of Thomas Parr, also by Rembrandt, may be seen in Prince Lobanoff's collection). 792, Abraham's Sacrifice, one of Rembrandt's earliest, signed and dated 1635 (W.): there is a copy of this picture by Eckout in a private collection at Brussels. The Hermitage Gallery is also very rich in pictures by Ferdinand Bol: see the excellent portraits by this artist under Nos. 853, 854 (W.), 849, 848, 856, 851, and 847.

Room XIV.—The principal objects of attraction in this room are six sketches by Rubens for the decoration of the triumphal arches raised at Antwerp in 1635 to greet the solemn entrance of the Infant Cardinal Ferdinand, brother of Philip IV. of Spain (Nos. 561 to 566). The paintings were executed by Rubens' pupils, after these sketches. The allegorical representation of Peace and War contending at the Temple of Janus (566) is ingenious and masterly (W.). Nos. 572 and 573 are of interest to Englishmen, being sketches by Rubens for the ceiling of the Palace at Whitehall,

made by order of Charles I.; the former represents James I. seated on his throne, with Pallas, Juno, and Venus accompanied by Cupid, before him; the Genius of Peace is below, burning armour. This sketch once belonged to Sir Godfrey Kneller, but was purchased of Crozat for the Hermitage. No. 573 is the Apotheosis of James I., formerly in the Walpole Coll. No. 546, Descent from the Cross, by the same great master, is a repetition of his famous picture at Antwerp. There is a very good copy of it over the altar of the English church at St. Petersburg. 594 and 595 (opposite to each other) are excellent specimens of Rubens's landscape-painting, the former conveying well the effect of moonlight (W.); the latter, "the Rainbow," is in the great master's best style. 574 is another admirable sketch by Rubens in *grisaille*, with the exception of the portrait—it is signed near the left side of the head. 537, the Adoration of the Magi, on paper, has passed for a sketch by Rubens, but Prof. Waagen is inclined to consider it a copy of a picture of the same subject. 592, a Lioness between two Lions, is a portrait taken by Rubens at the Zoological Gardens at Antwerp—treated in the same masterly manner as the celebrated picture of Daniel in the Lions' Den, now at Hamilton Palace (W.). 605, Christ on the Cross, most spirited sketch by Van Dyck; and 658 is the copy, by Jordaens, of 543, already mentioned. 757, Repose of the Holy Family, by Poelenburg, is a very unusual subject for that artist.

Two candelabra of rhodonite, and a large tazza of violet jasper, will be noticed in this room.

Room XV.—This small room is devoted to a portion of the German school in its decadence. 1289, an Orgie, and 1290, a Concert, are by Platzer. 1303 is a portrait of Mengs by the artist himself. 1299, the Descent of the Holy Ghost, is an exquisite specimen of Mengs; unusually fine in colour and expression. The Denners are 1284 to 1288. 1304 and 1305, by Angelique Kaufmann, represent episodes from Sterne's 'Sentimental Journey.'

Room XVI.—On the eight screens in this room are numerous specimens of the Dutch school in its most flourishing period. 777, Presentation of the Bride, a masterpiece by Van der Helst, to the left on entering, at once strikes the eye; very much restored, especially the head and dress of the bride (from King of Holland's Collection). 778 and 779 are fine specimens of that artist's portrait-painting, rarely seen out of Holland. 900, Game of Trictrac, by Jan Steen, who is seen in the picture playing with a lady; the specimens of this artist are numerous, affording an excellent opportunity of studying his style. 874, the Musician, by Terburg; the white satin dress of the lady is beautifully painted. 903, the Alchymist, is a splendid specimen of Gerard Dow. 878 is one of the best pictures by Metzu. 962, a Winter Landscape, by Ostade,—signed; it is painted in his latest and best style. 1246 and 1247 are the two well-known pictures, by W. van Mieris. 1136, a Morass in the middle of a Forest, is an excellent Ruysdael. 1143 (opposite) is another specimen of that master. 1211 (on stand VII.), a Street at Amsterdam, is one of Jan van der Heyden's best pictures; the figures were painted by A. van der Velde. The specimens of this artist are numerous, and extremely good and valuable. 1148, View near Groeningen, by Jacob Ruysdael—full of sunlight. 1145 is a beautiful and clear specimen of the same artist. 1117, one of the best efforts of Van der Neer—a View at Sunset. 1162, Marine View by Pynacker—one of his best. 1102, a View of the Meuse, by Cuyp. 1150, Study, by C. Decker; a beautiful specimen of this master, whose pictures are rare. 895, a large picture by Jan Steen, Esther before Assuerus; considered by Waagen the best of that artist's serious pictures. 979 is a good specimen of Van der Poel. 1081, a graceful Landscape, by Berchem, in a warm golden tone. 1262, a Landscape, in *grisaille*, by Begeyn. 1076 and

1077 (opposite) are two more excellent Landscapes, by Berchem. 1135, Mouth of the Scheldt, by Everdingen; very bold and picturesque. On a stand is another small picture by Van der Heyden (1206); a little harsh in outline and cold in tone, but the figures beautifully painted by A. van der Velde; it represents a street at Cologne.

Room XVII. is devoted to pictures of fruit and game by Snyders, Vos, Weenix, Verendael, and others. 1324, Concert of Birds, by Snyders, is curious. (Peter the Great's Gallery is reached from here. There is a studio for painting on porcelain above this room, and a small collection of old majolica, not generally open to the public.)

Room XVIII. contains numerous paintings of fish, fruit, and game on the largest canvas, by Snyders, Vos, and others. 1161, Stag-hunt, is an excellent specimen of Hackert; and 1323 (on a stand) is an amusing study of cats' heads by Snyders.

There is a marble statue by Canova in this room, well known from popular reproductions.

Room XIX.—This room, like the next, is set apart for the *Russian School*, founded in 1759 by Lossenko. 1626, Sunrise on the Black Sea; and on the other side of the door an extraordinary picture, "the Deluge," by Aivazofsky, a marine painter. 1622, a View of Odessa, by the same artist. 1629, View of Wladi-Kavkas, a small town in the Caucasus, by Willewald. 1630, The *Kermesse* or Fair at Amsterdam by moonlight, by Bogoluboff; the double effect of the moonlight, and that of the variegated lamps, is beautifully rendered. 1568, the capture of Kazan by John the Terrible in 1552; the Tsar of Kazan is kneeling in submission to John IV. 1569, the election of Michael Romanoff to the throne of Russia; the boyar Sheremetieff is bearing the crown, the sceptre, and a gold cross; the mother of Michael Romanoff and several high ecclesiastics stand near him. Both these historical pictures are by Ugrumoff, a pupil of Lossenko. Near 1568 will be seen one of Avaizowski's most extraordinary efforts, "the Creation of the World."

A marble statue of Paris by Canova stands in this room.

Room XX.—*Russian School* continued.—1594, a Nymph going to bathe, by Neff, is an admirable specimen of flesh-painting. 1593, by Ivanoff, Christ appearing to Mary Magdalene; the figure of the Magdalene is not deficient in pathos, while that of Christ is executed with the cold formality of the pseudo-classic school. 1590 is an immense picture by Bruni of the Brazen Serpent: a startling academical picture. The most striking picture in this room is 1580, the Last Day of Pompeii, by Brülow; it is considered to be the most important work of the Russian School. 1595, two Nymphs bathing; one of the figures in this picture is from the same model as 1594, which it resembles in mode of treatment. There are more copies taken of these two pictures by Neff than of any other in the Hermitage.

Two candelabra and a tazza of very fine jasper stand in the centre of the room.

Rooms XXI. and XXII.—*Numismatic Collection.*—This consists of more than 200,000 specimens, and was commenced by Catherine II. The original collection has been increased by purchases and gifts, principally from Baron de Chaudoir, M. Reichel, Count Perofsky, and M. de Beulé.

The coinage of Russia is shown in more than 7000 specimens, of which the most precious are 4 gold coins of St. Wladimir, 10th centy. (in Case 1). On a small stand will be found a rich collection of "Poltinas" or half-pounds of silver, current throughout Russia from the reign of Wladimir the Great to the 15th centy., and of "roubles," or quarters of a pound of silver, introduced about the 15th centy. Those without any stamp are the most

ancient. Some Poltinas of the Golden Horde of Tartary are under the same glass. The modern "rouble" takes its origin from these rude lumps of metal, the name implying a piece chopped off. The square copeck and half-copeck of iron are supposed to have been used in the payment of miners in the province of Olonets, near the White Sea. By some the name "Kopeika" (copeck) is assumed to be derived from the word *kopié*, or lance, from the effigy of St. George and the Dragon originally stamped on the coin; but by others the name is supposed to be of greater antiquity. The 4-cornered flat rouble of copper cast at Ekaterinburg in 1725 will be noticed with interest in Case 5, as will also the round rouble of copper cast in 1771. The coins of countries and provinces once independent, but now subject to Russia, are exhibited in a magnificent series. Thus the coins of *Poland* from the 10th centy., and numerous medals (*vide* that of Sobieski in Case 4), form a fine collection in 7 cases. On a stand will be seen the medals struck in Russia since 1702; and the visitor will notice that in the reign of Peter the Great gold coins bearing the effigy of the sovereign were worn as Orders of Merit, after the ancient custom of Byzantium. A case is devoted to a fine collection of the coins of the *Slavonic* races, Servian, Bulgarian, &c. The mints of foreign States are very richly represented. An English or American visitor will inspect with interest the valuable collection of *English* coins arranged in 3 cases at the lower part of Room XXII., and consisting of several hundred specimens of Ethelred II., Canute, Hardicanute, &c., many of which have been excavated in Russia. Anglo-Saxon coins have been found in every part of Russia, from Oranienbaum (opposite Cronstadt) to Chernigoff in the S. They were largely current in the early Russian principalities, which then supplied Europe with black martenskins, and other products of the chase. The coinage of Jaroslaf, son of Wladimir the Great, was after an Anglo-Saxon model, as may be seen in the numismatic collection at Stockholm.

Among the *ancient* coins is a splendid series representing the Greek colonies of Olbia, Chersonesus, Panticapæum, Phanagoria, and many others. The collection of coins of the kings of Pontus and Bosporus is particularly rich, the specimens ranging between Leucon and Rhescuporis (the contemporary of Constantine the Great), and including Mithridates VI., Asander, Cotys, Polemon II., his wife Tryphæna, and Eupator. As there is unfortunately no printed catalogue of this collection, it may be as well to give here a few particulars respecting the number and character of the coins from the principal colonies of ancient Greece :—

1. *Olbia* (the most important Greek city N. of the Euxine; situated at confluence of Dnieper and Bug):—
   - Skiluros, King . . . 4 copper coins.
   - Inismeus, „ . . . 1 silver coin.
   - Coins of the Emperors . 22 of copper.
   - Tesseræ . . . . . 41 „
   - Fishes . . . . . 34 „

2. *Khersonesus* (near Sevastopol):—
   - Silver coins 16
   - Copper „ 89

3. *Panticapæum* (the present Kertch):—
   - Gold coins 12
   - Silver „ 33
   - Copper „ 88

4. *Phanagoria* (on Asiatic coast of Euxine; capital in Asia of kings of Bosporus):—
   - Silver coins 2
   - Copper „ 20

5. *Tyras* (the present Akerman):—
   - Copper coin 1

6. *Sindi* (near Sea of Azof):—
   - Silver coins 2

7. *Gorghipia* (near the present Taman):—
   - Silver coin 1
   - Copper „ 3

8. *Heraclea* (on S. shore of Euxine):—
   - Copper coins 2

9. *Dioscurias* (near the present Poti):—
   - Silver coin (very rare) . . 1
   - Copper „ 2

10. *Theodosia* (Kaffa):—
    - Copper coins 2

11. *Cercina*:—
    - Copper coin 1

    (Very rare, being one of only two known specimens.)

12. Of *Greek* colonies or towns unknown:—
    19 pieces.

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Among these is a coin similar to that which is mentioned in Harwood's 'Populorum et Urbium selecta Numismata Græca" (1812), as being of Tyras, from the monogram on it. There are, however, several pieces at the Hermitage, with different monograms, but with the same effigy on one side and a Scythian bow-case on the other.

The collection representing the Kings of Pontus includes 16 coins of two different sovereigns, whose names are indicated by monograms which have not been deciphered, but from which it is apparent that their names began severally with E and R.

In the galleries above Room XXI. are more than 15,000 specimens of the coins of ancient Greece and Rome, and amongst them more than 40 *statere* of Asia Minor. The fine collection of Athenian coins, purchased from M. De Beulé, contains more than 400 specimens of *Tetradrachmæ*.

The earliest dated inscription in the Russian language yet discovered is preserved in Room XXI. It is called the Stone of Tmutarakan, whose Prince, Gleb, caused the distance between the seat of his sovereignty and Kertch to be measured over the ice and recorded on this stone in 1068.

The numismatic collection is not open to the general public, but an application to one of the learned curators will always secure admittance.

Collection of Gems.—Room XXIII. (entrance from Room I.)—The collection of gems is one of the largest in existence. It has been made up of various collections, purchased at different times by the sovereigns of Russia, and conspicuous among which is the renowned Cabinet of the Duke of Orleans (Philippe Egalité). The gems from that collection may be distinguished by their rims presenting a surface of deadened gold. It would be difficult to criticise in a short notice so vast an assemblage of engraved stones and *camei*, or even to direct attention to objects in it of especial interest and beauty, and the more so as at present the antique gems have not been separated from the very large majority of modern and *cinquecento* works with which they are mingled, their arrangement being founded only on the subjects engraved, irrespective of the dates of the artists that engraved them.

In this room is a large clock, remarkable for the perfection of its mechanism. A poor widow, to whom it had fallen in a lottery, sold it for about 3000*l*. It executes overtures with the effect and precision of a band, and is sometimes wound up to gratify travellers. There are also 3 very curious bureaux along the walls of this room.

Theatre.—The Hermitage Theatre is approached through the Gem Room (XXIII.). It was built by the architect Quarenghi on the site of an old palace, but has recently been renovated inside. It is constructed in the semicircular form of an antique theatre, and will contain about 500 persons. The Empress Catherine had comedies acted there, which were generally composed by her court, and in some cases even by her Majesty. The actors were frequently *amateurs*, and sometimes professional, both French and Russian. The empress sat on one of the benches of the second row, the stalls having only been placed in the reign of the Emperor Paul. In front of her, and at her feet, sat the privileged persons described in M. de Ségur's Memoirs. Up to the year 1837 fancy balls used to be given at the Palace on New Year's Day, to which as many as 30,000 invitations were sometimes issued. 600 covers were on those occasions laid for the sovereign and the court in this theatre; a flooring between the stage and the benches converting it into one immense banqueting hall of great beauty. Two such balls were given, in 1839 on the marriage of the Grand Duchess Marie Nicolaevna, and in 1841 on that of the Emperor Alexander II. The Hermitage Theatre is thrown open 3 or 4 times during the winter to a very select circle.

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Contiguous to the theatre are the

barracks of the Transfiguration Regiment, a kind of Prætorian Guard, which has the privilege of entering the palace through the Hermitage by a private door.

Room XXV.—*Raphael's Loggie.* (Reached from Room I., Spanish.)—Catherine II. caused this gallery to be added to the Hermitage in order to receive the copies of the famous frescoes in the Vatican by Raphael. The originals suffered much neglect until the occupation of Rome in 1813 by the Neapolitans; and these copies have the advantage of representing the Loggie at a period when they were better preserved.

In cases in front of the windows in this gallery is a collection of Oriental coins, commencing with the early Khalifs, and ending with a Turkish assignat for 20 piastres. The Persian war contribution (1828), in Case 12, contains some interesting specimens. The Khans of the Golden Horde, the Khans of Bukhara, and many other Asiatic rulers, are here represented in their gold and silver coins. The collection of Khalifs and Djudjids is particularly fine. Russians never fail to look at the decoration worn by Schamyl, which lies in Case 11.

French Gallery.—(Reached from Raphael's Loggie.)—The paintings of the French School form a separate collection, which is now placed in the old part of the Hermitage. The view from the windows of these fine apartments, occupied by H.R.H. the Prince of Wales in 1866, embraces a vast and beautiful panorama of the Neva.

Room XXXIX.*—This contains several pictures by Vernet. 1550, View of Palermo; considered to be one of his best pictures.

Room XXXVIII. has some excellent landscapes by Gaspar Poussin, several marine pieces by Vernet, and one of the oft-repeated convent interiors by Granet (1528).

* These numbers are not at present over the doors, but they are retained here for the purpose of rendering the plan of the Hermitage more distinct.

Room XXXVII.—Mignard and De Troy. The larger picture in the centre of this beautiful hall (1456) is by Mignard, and represents Alexander and the family of Darius; it once belonged to the Duchess of Kingston. The other 2 pictures, Susanna and the Elders, and Lot and his Daughters, are by De Troy. The columns over the mantelpiece are of a very beautiful riband-jasper; the mosaic-work is Russian. The doors, made in Paris, are of very fine and costly workmanship.

Room XXXVI. (to the left).—1518, a fine bold sketch of a head by Greuze, very like a Gainsborough. 1521 to 1525 are 5 animated and highly-finished landscapes by Marne; the Louvre has only 2 pictures by this artist. The small cabinet pictures by Chardin, Lancret, and Watteau are suitable ornaments to this pretty apartment. 1471, portrait of a young lady by Santerre is worthy of notice.

Room XXXV.—1520, Death of the Paralytic, the celebrated picture by Greuze; one of the series in the Louvre. 1516, by Fragonard, a charming subject, with an effect of *chiaroscuro* suggestive of a serious study of Rembrandt. Here are also 2 Lancrets and a pretty little Le Moine, Cupid asleep, the subject of his large picture at the Louvre. The mosaic table in the centre of the room was made at Rome for the late Empress of Russia. It represents views of the cities visited by H. I. M., and the statues and pictures which the empress most admired.

Room XXXIV.—Here are 4 interesting landscapes by Claude Lorraine.

Room XXXIII. (Claude Lorraine and Van Loo) contains 6 fine landscapes by Claude, representing different periods of the day; 2 mythological subjects by Van Loo; and a copy by Le Moine of Correggio's Jupiter and Io in the Berlin Gallery.

Room XXXII. (Claude Lorraine, Van Loo).—1433 and 1434, 2 charming

landscapes by Claude. 1477, by Subleyras, the Emperor Valens and Saint Basilius, a small repetition of the celebrated picture in the Louvre; the mass of light formed by the robes of the priests in the centre group is admirably treated. A copy of this picture, the size of the original, is in the church of the monastery of St. Alexander Nevski.

Room XXXI. (Poussin, Mignard, Boucher).—1486, Repose in Egypt by Boucher; an unusual subject for this painter, whose pencil was chiefly devoted to mythological amours, flirtations of fashionable shepherdesses and their swains, bathing nymphs, and other nudities. 1399, a powerful and uncommon picture by Poussin, representing the body of our Lord at the foot of the cross.

Room XXX. (Poussin).—1414 and 1413 are 2 noble classical landscapes, the first representing Polyphemus, the second Hercules and Cacus. The silvery moonlit clouds, and the effect of twilight, in the latter, are rendered with great truth. The centre-piece (1400), Neptune and Amphitrite, is remarkable for drawing, composition, and freshness of colour, as well as for the beauty of the female figures, which are evidently studies from life.

Room XXIX.—Le Brun, Poussin.

Room XXVIII.—Le Sueur.

Peter the Great's Gallery is entered from Room XVII., although it forms part of the Winter Palace. It is devoted to a collection of objects of art and industry illustrative of the life and activity of Peter the Great. Here will be seen the turning-lathes and instruments for carving, with which that monarch worked. Numerous specimens of his handicraft stand about the room and in the cases which line the wall. His telescopes, mathematical instruments, books, and walking-sticks, are all objects of curiosity. A heavy iron staff which he carried about tells of his great strength, as the wooden rod which marks his height does of his almost gigantic stature. The small open gilt chariot in which Peter occasionally drove has an anomalous appearance among so many plain and practical appliances. His effigy, in the dress of the period, embroidered for him by Catherine I. for the ceremony of her coronation, is appropriately placed in the centre of this interesting workshop and museum. The sword which he wears, with a handle of nephrite, was the gift of Augustus II. On each side of the effigy are casts and portraits taken from the features of Peter after death, by his painter Tanhauer; and the portrait, in mosaic, over the chariot, was executed by the poet Lomonosoff. The victor at Poltava sits opposite to the horse which he rode at that battle; but his diminutive charger must have shrunk considerably in the process of stuffing, being now not many hands higher than the wolf-hound which runs alongside. Two other favourite dogs are preserved under the same glass cover. There is also a case containing the medals struck by Peter to commemorate the more important events of his reign, while another contains specimens of his coinage, with a few of a later date. On the top of a press, near a window, stands a small effigy of his housekeeper in Holland. Above the presses the walls are covered with portraits of his coadjutors in the work of founding the Russian empire. Scotchmen observe with satisfaction the portrait of Count James Bruce, immediately on the right of the door by which the gallery is entered.

But perhaps one of the most interesting objects in this museum is an addition which has been recently made to it: nothing less than a cast of Peter the Great's face, made when he was alive. The cast which is of wax and furnished with long black hair and small moustaches, was attached to a wooden bust and presented by Peter the Great to his friend Cardinal Valenti at Rome. An engraving taken from it is preserved at the public library at St. Petersburg; but the original had long been missing when

Mr. Guédéonoff, the talented director of the Hermitage, discovered it at Rome at the banker Torlonia's, purchased it, and gave it with generous patriotism to the gallery, where it now stands.

Through a glass door at the end of this gallery the visitor will proceed to inspect the wonderful timepiece, in the shape of a gilded peacock, which once expanded its brilliant tail, preparatory to a cock of the same hue flapping his wings and crowing to announce the hour. The owl also rolled his eyes, and the grasshopper fed voraciously on the mushroom, in harmony with the chief actors in this complicated and now broken piece of mechanism. It was made by a Prussian in London for a Russian nobleman, at whose death Prince Potemkin bought it for the Empress Catherine. Around it, in glass cases, is a large and valuable collection of snuff-boxes, left by various sovereigns. The one presented to the Empress Alexandra, consort of Nicholas I., by Mahmoud II., Sultan of Turkey, with his portrait in miniature on ivory, is resplendent with large diamonds of the first water. It contained a fine shawl. The snuff-box, No. 4044, with portraits of Marie Antoinette and her children, was presented by Louis XVI. on the scaffold to his valet-de-chambre Cléry. The miniature on No. 4042 portrays the Holstein army of Peter III. Inside the box is a bust of Duke George of Schleswig-Holstein, uncle of Peter III. The beautiful painting on No. 4043 represents the arrival of the first bride (Natalie of Hesse) of the Emperor Paul at Revel. No. 4023 is a snuff-box which Frederick the Great gave to one of his generals, with the following lines written on a piece of paper inside :—

"Hier schenk ich ihm was,
Heb er es wohl auf
Denn es ist kein Dreck."

In frames against the walls are numerous historical miniatures of great interest. Frame J contains very fine miniatures, by Benner, of sovereigns of the house of Romanoff. Frame L: Wallenstein (36), Frederick William the Great, Elector of Brandenburg (48), Louis XIV. (45). Frame M : Portraits of Charles I. and his Queen; Cook (19), Milton (22), Cromwell (12), George IV. as Prince of Wales (20), Moreau (21), taken after death; Miss Porter (24).

Beyond this again is a long gallery, with presses and glass-cases full of articles of virtù, curiosities, and historical knicknacks. At each side of the door is a toilette-case in silver, made at Augsburg for Sophia, sister of Peter I. The first press on the right, numbered 20, contains a valuable collection of jewelled watches and other costly objects.

Press 19. Two very fine dishes of Limoges enamel, signed by Pierre Rexmon, and six enamel plates by Jehan Court. No. 2925, the gold cup, in the form of a snail, belonged to Frederick William, Elector of Brandenburg. No. 2880, the last cup on the top shelf, in the form of a shell, is a relic of John Sobieski.

Press 18. Model of a Lapland hut and household, carved in ivory. The two ivory vases, on either side, were presented by Alexander I. to the Emperor of Japan, who sent them back, on the ground that he could not accept presents from an inferior.

Press 17. Toys of Catherine II. and Marie Feodorowna. A large salver, with the topography of the province of Wologda, produced in niello-work, presented by the province to Alexander I. Potemkin's plume, glittering with precious stones, presented to him by the Sultan of Turkey. On the upper shelf is the golden goblet used at the marriage ceremonies of the Imperial family. On the first shelf a cup, surmounted by an eagle holding a balai ruby, which bears the name of Francis Drake.

Press 16. No. 2627, magnificent casket of *vermeil*, ornamented with pearls, precious stones, and camei, presented by Sigismund I., King of Poland, to his friend Joachim I., Elector of Brandenburg, 1533. Monster pearls, mounted in a variety of forms by the Dinglinger family, jewellers to the court of Augustus II. at Dresden. No. 2682, inkstand of Jerome Bonaparte

(king Lustig), taken at Cassel by Chernytcheff.

Press 15. Filigree ornaments.—2594, inkstand of Maurice of Orange, inherited by Frederick I. of Prussia, and containing his seal.

Press 14. Silver objects.—No. 2503, model of Strasbourg Cathedral; two magnificent vermeil goblets; dish, with arms of Riga, on which the keys of the town were presented to the Empress Anne.

Press 13. Japanese and Chinese articles of gold and silver plate.

Press 12. Crystals.—2366, small oval cup, that once belonged to Pope Clement VIII. Aldobrandini. On 2nd shelf large crystal cup, mounted in vermeil and ornamented with diamonds and rubies, from the celebrated convent of Maria Zell, in Austria. Crystal crocodile of Italian work. 2377, small tun, mounted with gold and precious stones, attributed to Benvenuto Cellini. On fifth shelf, spoon, with coral handle, belonged to John Sobieski of Poland.

Press 11. Japanese and Chinese curiosities, in silver.

Press 10. Russian curiosities.—Four small groups, in schistus, by Weneff. Several old cups and a casket, in enamel, called *Tsenina*, an art learned from Byzantium. Mosaic head of John the Baptist, by Siewers.

The inspection of the presses is here interrupted by an object of some interest, placed on a stand. It is a massive silver goblet, by Schlick, of Copenhagen, on which the apotheosis of the Emperor Nicholas appears in high relief.

Press 9. Old Japanese and Chinese filigree work.—On upper shelf a silver wig, worn by Narishkin, Grand Marshal of the Court, at a fancy ball given by Catherine II.

Press 8. Fine collection of old clocks and jewelled watches.—Two watches, in the shape of silver ducks. 2034, watch of an abbess, in form of a cross. 2059 and 2060, two fine clocks of Augsburg work, early part of 17th century. 2035, on third shelf, watch, in shape of a Nuremburg egg, by celebrated Russian mechanic Kulybin.

Press 7. Specimens of lapidary's art.—Handle of walking-stick, representing a sphynx, in blood jasper, covered with diamonds; belonged to Empress Elizabeth. No. 1904, parrot formed by a single emerald, presented by King Pedro II. of Portugal to his bride the Princess of Savoy. A casket of Florence mosaic, with arms of Francis I., husband of Marie Thérèse, destined for a collection of gems. Two magnificent bouquets, one of fleurs-de-lis, composed of pearls and diamonds; the other of several flowers, formed by splendid topazes, sapphires, rubies, and other stones.

Press 6. Lapidary's art.—No. 1794, on second shelf, inkstand, in form of sofa, presented by Stanislas Poniatowski to Catherine II. No. 1865, a large cup of pudding-stone, supported by St. Christopher, and surmounted by a figure of the Infant Christ. Two bouquets of precious stones.

Press 5. Oriental jewellery.—Plume of Suwaroff, given to him by the Shah of Persia, and presented by the General to Catherine II.

Press 4. China.—Complete tea-service of china and enamel; belonged to Augustus II. of Poland. A casket of Dresden china, ornamented with diamonds, and containing the card-markers still used at the empress' card-table.

Press 3. No. 1609, glass drinking-horn, of the time of the last Crusades, with figures of 4 Evangelists, mounted in vermeil, of early part of 16th centy. No. 1612, a tankard of vermeil, ornamented with crystals; cover, surmounted by the eagle of the house of Radziwill, descending from the old ecclesiastical princes of Lithuania. On third shelf, No. 1630, a large cup of Anglo-Saxon work, found in Russia; and at the back of the same shelf a large silver cover, in the same style, discovered in Siberia. No. 1629, ewer and basin, with arms and cipher of John Cherban III. Kantacuzen, Voevod of Wallachia.

Press 2. On third shelf small crystal cup, mounted on vermeil, with the inscription "*Vsibus Annæ Clivens Henr. VIII. Reg. Angl. uxoris, Ao.* 1540." On

the other shelves will be seen a very fine collection of Rubin glass, invented by the celebrated Kunkel, of Potsdam.

Press I. An inkstand, made to commemorate the battle of Tchesmé; belonged to Prince Orloff.

At the end of the room are a few specimens of carving in wood, some of which are by King. Passing by the glass-case with stones and the model of the monument at Poltava, the visitor will proceed to inspect the cases on the other side of the gallery.

Glass-case I. Chinese figures.

Press 26. Head of Madonna, sculptured in mammoth-bone by Scheer, of Moscow, from model by Prof. Vitali; height 23 in., breadth 20 in. Gives some idea of the size of the antediluvian animal whose tusks are so frequently found in Russia. No. 3394, chess-men, French work of period of Charles IX. No. 3411, a superb ivory dish, of German workmanship, representing hunting scenes.

Case II. More than 100 ornaments in gold filigree, from the toilet of a Japanese lady of quality; equal to Greek work for fineness, though not for design. Observe the magnificent necklace in the shape of a *streptos*.

Press 25. Collection of ivory figures, &c.

Case III. Chinese jade cups.

Press 24. Specimens of carving in bone, from Archangel.

Alongside, the visitor will view a modern work of art, illustrative of a recent page in history. It is a silver salver, which, in the allegorical forms of Hercules and the Hydra, records the triple alliance against Russia (1854-56) and its result. Conceived and executed by Benjamin Schlick, of Copenhagen, and offered for sale to the Emperor.

Press 23. Russian work, in ivory.—Portrait of Lomonossoff, the poet and fisherman, born at Archangel. Models of monument to Minin Kusma Minitch Sukhorukoff (a butcher from Nijni Novgorod) and Prince Pojarsky erected at Moscow.

Case V. Carving in ivory, from 14th centy.—Portrait of Christian V., King of Denmark, of Duke Augustus of Brunswick (4415), and of a Duke of Schleswig-Holstein (4414).

Press 22. Articles which have belonged to members of the Imperial Family.—Set of buttons painted by the wife and children of Emperor Paul. Lockets, with hair of Peter the Great, his father, &c. Dinner and breakfast services, used by Alexander I. in all his campaigns.

Case VI. Collection of pocket-books.—Largest one in centre (7), enamelled and ornamented with diamonds and rubies; belonged to the wife of George William, Elector of Brandenburg, and to both wives of Frederick William the Great, and containing autographs of Gustavus Adolphus and of most of the German Princes and Princeses of the time of the 30 years' war. Memorandum-book in morocco (28), with gold and enamelled cipher of Sophia Charlotte, wife of Frederick III., afterwards first Queen of Prussia; given by her to Peter the Great at Königsberg. Small book (27), with gold cipher of Augustus II., King of Poland. Book, with tortoiseshell cover, studded with sapphires and rubies; belonged to Peter III., husband of Catherine II. Also a few specimens of niello-work.

Press 21. Filigree work.—Silver peacock, presented to Nicholas I. by Viceroy of Peru. Model of a Sardinian cannon, with the cross of the Annunciation.

On small stands near the press are marble busts of Charles of Anjou, King of Naples, and his wife, Margaret of Flanders.

Case VII. A very valuable collection of rings.—Ring, with portrait of Peter I. under a pink diamond; another with likeness of Frederick the Great. Several betrothal rings of the Imperial family will be seen in the upper small case. The ring of greatest interest is engraved with the arms of E. Friesland; it was given by the Princess of Friesland to Sophia Charlotte, the unhappy wife of the Tsarevitch Alexis,

The jewelled walking-stick handles belonged to Catherine II. Under the case will be found an umbrella, made at Tula for the great empress.

Visitors withdraw through Peter the Great's gallery.

Ground-floor.

The ground-floor of the Museum is occupied by galleries of antique sculpture, by the Kertch and Siberian collections, by a library, and by a gallery of original drawings, which should be seen in the order here given.

Sculpture.—1st Room. Entering by a door on the l. hand, guarded by two very tall candelabra of rhodonite, the visitor is introduced to a few Egyptian and Assyrian fragments of sculpture, six sarcophagi, and, to some casts from the bas-reliefs of Nemroud.

2nd Room. Fragments of Greek and Roman sculpture.* On a bracket against the wall (rt.), bust of Apollonius Tyaneus, the Pythagorean philosopher, whose portrait has hitherto only been known by a medal. 44. Head of Statue of Juno; hair and drapery modern; discovered in the Taurida palace; origin unknown. 87. Panther, from the Campana collection.† 60. Large bust of Antinoüs, found at Adrian's Villa (C.).

3rd Room. 147. Omphale with attributes of Hercules (C.). 148. Mercury (C.). 171. Mars. 152. Colossal statue of Jupiter; considered largest in the world; found at the Villa Barberini; very much repaired (C.). 173. Bacchus. 154. Very fine statue of Venus Genetrix, in best style of Grecian art (C.). 175. Niobe (C.); excellent specimen of the antique. 176. Colossal head of Minerva, in Parian marble, probably of epoch of Phidias. The two marble sarcophagi at the head of the room are remarkable for the beauty of the figures in relief (C.).

4th Room. 193. Well-restored statue of Augustus (C.). 194. Beautiful statue of Marius, found at Otricoli (C.). 200. Arsinoë Philopator; nose, lower lip, and lobes of ears restored. 209. Pompey; and 210 Julius Cæsar (C.). 207. Only existing bust of Sallust (C.).

5th Room. In centre immense Tazza of green jasper from the Altai mountains. It was placed before the windows were built; diameter 16¼ ft.; more than 8 ft. high. 240. Titus Quinctius.

6th Room. Near door on rt. 274. Very fine statuette of Silenus. 266, near the window. Faun and Satyr (C.).

7th Room. Kertch collection, which see separately.

8th Room. The Nine Muses, from the collection of the Marquis Campana, but of various origin. 303. Caryatide Muse, in style of school of Phidias; bought at Venice in 1851. 332. Bas-relief of Ganymede. 337. Niobides; very fine fragment (C.). 316. A Faun; best specimen out of four in the Hermitage; given by Pope Pius IX. in exchange for some land on Mount Palatine, purchased by the Emperor Nicholas in 1846, for the purpose of making excavations.

9th Room. Venus of the Hermitage. 343. Very beautiful Greek statue found in 1859 at Rome, in the Vigna Mangani, near the Porta Portese; well preserved; only right hand, fingers of left hand, and small portion of neck restored; purchased 1859. 347. Venus from the Taurida Palace; Peter the Great caused it to be purchased at Rome in 1719, with some other antiques, and thus laid the foundation of the present sculpture gallery. There is another Venus with a Cupid (351) near the door. Cupid has been added by the sculptor Bernini (C.).

* For details purchase of the porter 'Catalogue du Musée de Sculpture Antique.' Price 20 cop. The collection of Egyptian antiquities has been enriched by the valuable gifts of Khalil Bey, Turkish minister at St. Petersburg.

† In 1861 Mr. Guédéonoff, the present Director of the Hermitage, purchased for the Russian Government a considerable portion of the collection of the Marquis Campana at Rome, whose defalcations in connection with the Mont de Piété, are well known. The French Government bought the less valuable portion at a great price. The most important of the objects belonging to the Campana collection will be placed and marked with the letter C.

Kertch Collection.—7th Room. Antiquities from Cimmerian Bosporus.

Medals and other monuments attesting the existence of Greek colonies, founded nearly 600 years before the birth of our Saviour, began to be discovered in the early part of this century on the northern shores of the Black Sea. The classical names of Panticapæum, Theodosia, and Phanagoria, reappeared on the surface. Many discoveries were made on the sites of those ancient settlements in 1820, but the earliest prizes of any value were obtained in 1831, at the gates of Kertch (Panticapæum), on opening a tomb concealed in a mound, long known to the Tartars as the "Hillock of the Brave." In a chamber built of hewn stone were found the remains of a Scythian prince or ruler, side by side with his favourite wife, his equerry, and his war-horse. His crown, his weapons of gold, his ornaments, and golden robes, had lain untouched for more than two thousand years. Numerous vases of bronze, some gilt, others more simple, and still containing the remains of provisions which had been placed in them, were also found, and carefully conveyed to the Hermitage.

Within the last few years the search for these treasures has been conducted at the expense of the crown with greater method and care, which were rewarded in 1866 by the discovery at Taman of the tomb of a Priestess of Ceres, buried with all her rich ornaments, and with her four horses. The tomb was found within the "Great Tumulus," or *Blisnitsa*.*

The Kertch antiquities have been supplemented by many specimens of ancient jewellery and pottery discovered in other parts of the Crimea, particularly at Theodosia and Nedvigofka, at the mouth of the Don, the ancient Tanaïs.

A study of these treasures will reveal two species or phases of art, the one Greek, the other local. Attracted by commerce, and by the riches of the Scythians, the Greeks engrafted their ancient civilization on them, and mingled their mythology and their classical forms and legends with the customs, the emblems, the costumes, and even the physical types of the barbarians. The classical scholar will be able to distinguish in this museum the gems of art purely Greek, and the scarcely less beautiful productions of the Greek artists and their disciples of the colonies, which form together the most perfect and interesting collection of objects of antique art in the world, immeasurably superior to the analogous collections of Naples, and other favoured localities in Italy. The Turks and a few sailors, quite as many French as English, behaved very badly at Kertch, but fortunately only a very few Greek antiquities were destroyed or carried away by them. The museum there, founded in 1823, had only been a temporary depository of the antiquities; and, with the exception of some duplicates, all the riches hitherto obtained from the classical shores of the Cimmerian Bosporus had been removed to St. Petersburg in 1852; and even the more valuable of the duplicates were taken away at the breaking out of the Crimean war, and have since been restored. An Englishman, however, may always deplore that any repository of the fine arts should have been plundered in the course of military operations in which his country was concerned.

In a magnificent room, of which the roof is supported by twenty monolith columns of grey granite, the treasures of the Cimmerian Bosporus are displayed under the windows and against the walls in the following order:—

To the rt. of the door on entering is a sarcophagus of wood, found in 1860 in a tumulus near Kertch. To the l. of the door is the case or coffin found inside the sarcophagus, and which contained the skeleton deposited

* The traveller is referred for a learned description of these treasures to the valuable works of the curator of this museum, Mr. L. Stephani: 'Compte Rendu de la Commission Imp. Archéologique pour l'année 1859; idem, pour les années 1860-67.' These 9 volumes may be purchased at 5 rs. each at Eggers' Library, St. Petersburg. They may also be purchased at Leipzig. A short description of the Museum, in French, may be obtained at the door of the Hermitage.

there 400 years B.C. The vermilion with which some of the ornaments were coloured is still to be traced, and the wood itself, supposed to be cypress and yew, appears almost new.

1st Window.—Under window, terracotta figures. Case rt. terracotta figures of children playing with various animals; a child's doll, with moveable legs and arms: found in tombs of children. Case l., masks and other objects in pottery. First from door, Pyramidal Stand I.: domestic utensils of silver, of graceful, classical form.

Between 1st and 2nd windows, Pyramidal Stand II.: small objects in silver, strigils and ampulla; 643 and 515, drinking-cup; 575, head of calf, finely chased, 5 centuries B.C.; cyathus for wine, and mirror.

2nd Window. Cases on each side with glass vessels; 796, a painted glass vase, with "Enrion has made it." Case under window—glass ornaments, chiefly amulets; walnuts, almonds, and filberts; 994, hucklebones for game of *Talus* (Astragalos).

Between 2nd and 3rd windows, Pyram. Stand III., with 6 funereal crowns of beaten gold.

3rd Window. Under window: 186. Small ivory box still containing the red pigment used by the Greek ladies; 3 dice; a wooden small-tooth comb with Greek inscription, "Present from sister;" a splendid bronze cover of a looking-glass; small ornaments from dress; and remains of a wooden lyre. Case rt., painted vases; centre vase in best style of Greek art; subject, the toilet; a vase alongside, same design.

Opposite 3rd window, iron casque, with gold and silver ornaments. Between 3rd and 4th window, octagon case full of female ornaments of gold; buttons, pins, necklaces, gold escallop-shells, gold filigree wine-strainer (527*a*). Bracelets of silver on which links of gold were once passed; small gold chain of exquisite workmanship, with precious stones inserted between links; heads of stag—symbol of longevity (407); wheatears of beaten gold, probably worn as ornaments in the hair.

4th Window. Gold ornaments found in the "Great Tumulus" at Taman. Case rt., vases, 36*a* and 36*b*, Paris and Helena, of magnificent workmanship. Case l., vases: 13*a*, Education of young Bacchus.

Opposite 4th window, magnificent vase with figures in relief, coloured and gilded, representing combats between the Griffins and Arimaspi; one of the principal personages, named Aérokomas, is on horseback; the other, Daréios, is in a chariot drawn by 2 horses; one of the griffins has a lion's head with large horns; an inscription says "Xenophantos of Athens has made it:"—a Greek artist, probably domiciled in Khersonesus about the 3rd or 4th centy. B.C.

Between the 4th and 5th windows is a collection of female necklaces in gold. No. 148, a most perfect gold filigree necklace or *hormos*, found at Theodosia, in same tomb with 3 other necklaces alongside. Victories with quadrigæ will be seen on close inspection to form the design of the 2 filigree earrings (84*i*). Beautiful gold and enamel necklace with myosotes (164*c*); necklace (160) with pendent charms; gold necklace with pendent bull's head (163), of magnificent workmanship; beautiful gold necklace, terminating in head of Medusa, with pendent amulets against various ills (161).

5th Window. In the 3 cases are placed the various objects found in the tomb of Kul-Ubà.

Case rt., ornaments for male attire: 530*a*, 530*b*, silver staffs, supposed to be heralds'; 432, gold umbo of shield weighing 25 oz.; 456, group of 2 Scythians drinking out of the same horn, with an intimacy which betrays the influence of Bacchus; 433, part of scabbard; 431, handle of sword; 436, remains of stirrups, iron and gold; 434, handle of whip, wood, with thin spiral gold plate. The other objects worth notice are 3 knives, and (447) the

stone for sharpening them; bracelets (427), weighing 6 oz. each, and (426), weighing 3 oz., of gold, bearing a representation of Thetis defending herself against Peleus, and Aurora carrying away the body of her son Memnon, killed under the walls of Troy. The streptos or collar (424) of twisted gold wire, weighing 16½ oz., and terminating in two Scythian horsemen, is of great beauty; the blue enamel still preserved at the extremities of the ring or collar. 458, small Scythian figure with bow and arrows.

Under window. Fragments of a lyre, probably of mammoth tusk, found abundantly on the Don; on it is a most beautiful etching in the highest style of Greek art, the Judgment of Paris being one of the subjects; broken by the falling in of the tumulus. 451, electrum vase, with repoussé figures of Scythians mending their weapons, &c. The principal figure appears to have been wounded in the mouth and leg; he is seen a second time submitting to an operation which looks like tooth-drawing, and a third time having his wounds dressed; the costumes resemble those of the peasantry in Russia at the present day, the shirt being worn outside the trousers, which are tucked into the boot. 573, a silver rhyton or drinking-horn; 574, ditto.

Case l. Female ornaments, &c.: 428, gold bracelets, each weighing 3 oz., of finest workmanship; 441, earrings, weighing 2 oz. each. It is necessary to have a microscope in order to see the delicate figures concealed in the exquisite ornamentation of these jewels. There are four female figures in each, representing Thetis, followed by her Nereïdes, bringing to Achilles the new arms forged for him by Vulcan. These were probably supported by Victories, detached, perhaps, by accident. Blue enamel visible in some parts. The gold collar (425) is inferior to the one opposite. The use of these ornaments was Barbarian, not Greek. 439, necklace of plaited gold thread, terminating in lion's head, not so delicate as the one in last window; 450, mirror with gold handle; the small gold laminæ proceed from the dress, to which, judging by the holes in them, they were attached.

Opposite 5th window is one of the finest Greek vases in the world, representing the Toilet; of beautiful design. Found near Kertch.

Between 5th and 6th windows, octagon case with gems. 2 gems representing a heron flying, signed "Dexamenos," are the finest and most important in the Hermitage, or perhaps anywhere. No. 292*h* was found in a tomb at Kertch, and probably dates 4 centuries B.C.; gem 290, Marsyas and Apollo; 296*a*, Medusa; 329, Ceres; 295, a griffin; 296, Venus at bath; 292, figure of a Scythian. Two largest known thumb-rings of gold, with heads of Minerva in cornelian; gold rings, plain and engraved; 246, Scythian trying his arrow, most curious; 247*a*, a well-preserved Victory on gold signet-ring.

6th Window. Case rt., painted vases with bacchanalian scenes.

In the case under the window are chiefly objects found in the tomb of a young woman at the Pavlovsk Battery at Kertch: 650, looking-glass, necklace, earrings formed by Victories, and a ring containing the bone of her finger; 247*f*, blue enamel ring, representing 2 Scythian dancers; 247*g*, a ring with Venus at the bath; 2 boots of one piece, except the soles; fragments of embroidered dress, partly worked with gold thread; 110, painted vase in terracotta, representing a Scythian dancing.

Case l., painted vase with bacchanalian subjects.

Opposite the 6th window, on a stand will be found the painted Greek vase, which is the second for beauty in the collection. It was taken from the tomb at the Pavlovsk Battery near Kertch. The figures are those of Triptolemus, Hecate, Ceres, Hercules, Proserpine, &c.

Between the 6th and 7th windows is a collection of female ornaments from dresses, and earrings; five female heads wearing the *stephanè*, some showing the bull-headed pendants; enamelled Cupids and Sirens

in various positions; 73*a*, 2 Bacchantes of delicate workmanship.

7th Window. Case rt., painted vases; 43*c*, Orestes and Pylades in the Areopagus.

In case under window, silver salver, with border and centre of niello-work, and a monogram combining the letters A. N. T. B.; a gold mask, which had covered the face of a female; gold spindle; small amphora for perfume, studded with garnets; gold bracelets and ornaments from dress; fragments of dress.

Case l., painted vases with human figures (see 111 and 112). Opposite this window is a fine urn of gilt bronze.

Between 7th and 8th windows. Pyramid, stand IV. with funereal wreaths; the 2 upper crowns have an impression from coins of Marc Aurelius and of Commodus with Marcia.

8th Window. Case rt., bronze vases; 2 pairs of greaves.

Under window. Bronze scales from harness; arrow-heads (618*b*, with a single barb); three ladles for wine; strigils.

Case l., fragments of harness and trappings of bronze and iron, studded with stones. Opposite the window is a vase representing a scene evidently Hymeneal.

Between 8th and 9th windows. Pyramid, stand V. with funereal wreaths.

9th Window. The case under this window contains the richest treasures in the museum. They were found in 1866 in the "Great Tumulus" at Taman, and constitute the ornaments, &c., of a priestess of Ceres, and the trappings of the four horses that were buried with her. Among the ornaments, the visitor will be struck with the extraordinary beauty of the repoussé work—Venus and Cupid—on a looking-glass cover of bronze-gilt. The bracelets, diadem, and necklace, and the buttons of her dress, are all of exquisite workmanship, as are also the 4 rings, of which one, the gold Abæus (241 F), is quite unique. The remains of the sandals worn by the priestess will also be seen with interest. The splendid ear-ornaments (84*j*) were worn suspended from the crown over the ears, in addition to earrings. The square gold plates from the dress of the priestess are stamped with the head of Medusa, whose tongue protrudes as a charm against the evil eye. The cases rt. and l. are full of the most graceful little terracotta figures, with subjects from domestic life; also alabastra and lamps. On some of the figures will be seen a head-dress (*polos*), which was probably the origin of the *nimbus*.

On a stand opposite this window are a vase and basin of gilt bronze, with handles in form of serpents springing from the head of Medusa. In the pyramidal case (No. VI., at the end of the room) are 7 gold crowns or wreaths of beaten gold, some with gems and precious stones. The largest and finest, with a representation of combats with griffins, belonged to the Priestess of Ceres.

In a recess beyond this window the visitor will see some large vessels of bronze, in the shape of a modern carpenter's basket, which contained the mutton with which the corpse at Kul-Uba was supplied. At the head of the room are the remains of a beautiful marble tomb with 2 recumbent figures; the bas-reliefs evidently represented Achilles at Syros; work of the 2nd centy. B.C. Along the wall on the opposite side of the museum are numerous funereal tablets and sepulchral monuments bearing inscriptions and figures of Greeks and Scythians; 22*c* is an unfinished marble bust, found on Mithridates' Hill; the column of a temple of Venus at Khersonesus; a bronze urn, enclosed in the stone, showing the way in which it was deposited, and a votive tablet with a figure of Proserpine and other mythological personages, may be noticed. On a stand is a beautiful silver helmet of Grecian work and unusual form.

The sarcophagus of Kul-Ubâ stands in a glass case; the carving of the wood and the figures in relief are

very fine; the gilding and colour are still partly preserved.

The 2 statues of a Greek lady and her husband may well be noticed for their beauty and perfection, not having been in the least restored; probably of the 1st centy. after Christ. The other objects on stands, a helmet and greaves (Knemides) of bronze, will have the parting glance in this interesting and unequalled collection.

Scythian Collection.

After leaving the Kertch room, the visitor should return to the Gallery of the Muses, and, admiring once more the "Venus of the Hermitage," pass into a room devoted to a collection of Scythian, Siberian, Oriental, and ancient Russian objects of antiquity. Here the progress and influence of Greek art may be studied in another stage. Although the Scythian ornaments found near Nicolaef and the Don, at a comparatively small distance from the Greek colonies, are of the most exquisite workmanship, and might well have come from Athens, yet the greater part are somewhat inferior and different in point of art, and were perhaps manufactured by the Greek artists of Panticapæum or their scholars. The mythology of the Greeks appears replaced by representations of the domestic usages of the Scythians, or confined to the reproduction of fabulous animals, not persons. Gold was cheaper inland than on the shores of the Bosporus, and the jewellery of the Scythians of the Don is consequently more massive than that of the Greek colonists. The gold objects, again, found in Siberia, perhaps the country of the Arimaspi, are still more solid and heavy, and are generally in the lowest style of art, with scarcely any Greek attributes. The same may be said of the gold ornaments of the oriental Scythians, whom Strabo describes wandering between the Oxus and the Jaxartes, and as wearing "in combat girdles of gold, and round the head bands of gold; the bits and plastrons of their horses are of gold." (Strabo, book xi.)

The most important objects in this room will be found on the three centre stands. On the first circular stand will be found the gold corytos or bow-case of the king (421). It bears a mythological Greek subject, in repoussé work, probably of local interest to a Scythian ruler. In the next compartment is the gold scabbard of his sword, representing a battle-scene between Greeks and Scythians, in which the fate of the battle appears equally balanced (424); the hilt of the sword, with handle of solid gold (425); other swords of inferior workmanship will be seen in Nos. 428 and 436; No. 419 is a sharpening stone. The other things exhibited in this case are gold ornaments from the dresses of the king and the queen, buried with them, some of them being evidently of barbarian origin; Medusa heads frequent; the dog engraved on ring 374 is a good specimen of art.

On the 2nd stand is the splendid vase of silver gilt discovered in 1863, with the dish and ornaments on the remaining stands, in the tomb of a Scythian king, on the banks of the Dnieper. The vase, 28 in. high, is in the most perfect style of Greek art, and cannot be of later date than the 4th centy. B.C. The magnificent relief figures round the upper part represent Scythians taming and otherwise attending to horses, which probably belong to the king's stable. The repoussé griffins attacking stags are mythological allusions to the country inhabited by the Scythians, in which the fabulous animal was supposed to exist. Instead of being poured out with a cyathus, the wine evidently flowed out through the heads of the Pegasus and lion below, after passing through a fine strainer inside. Probably the work of an Athenian artist of the period of Praxiteles.

A large silver dish and ladle, found with the above objects, is placed on the 3rd centre stand; they are of pure Greek work.

Other specimens of Greek art, with a considerable admixture of barbarian imitations, will be seen in some of the cases in this room. They are numbered consecutively, but must be described here according to the groups or collections to which they belong:—

Cases 4 and 6 form an entire collection of the Scythian objects found in a tumulus on the banks of the Dnieper.

Case 5. Objects found in the same tomb as the vase, dish, &c., on the centre stands (Nos. 1 to 3). On the top of the case are some gold cups of large size, found at Serai, the ancient capital of the Khans of the Golden Horde.

Case 7 contains gold and silver objects found in a tumulus near Novocherkask, and which must have belonged to some king. From the style of the diadem and the small Cupid in gold (13), they must be contemporaneous with the Emperors of Rome.

Cases 8, 9, 12. Gold and silver objects removed here from the Academy of Sciences. They were mostly found in the Southern Steppe provinces, and only a small minority in Siberia. The traveller will notice in the case nearest the door a *Streptos* of solid gold, terminating in the bodies of lions and weighing 3 lbs. Some of the ornaments are studded with turquoises. Case 12 is under the left window.

Cases 10, 11, and 13. These will be found near the windows. They contain objects attributed to the Chud or Finnish race, anciently inhabiting the confines of Siberia and Russia Proper. The bronze weapons of the same people, such as daggers, knives, and mining implements, will be found in a case near the window.

Cases 14 and 18 contain a collection of bronze objects from the Kirghiz Steppes, such as celts, arrow and spear heads, &c.

Case 16, under 2nd window, holds a collection of Byzantino-Slave objects, found principally at Kief. The gold earrings with enamelled figures of Sirens are of the 11th centy., as is also the large gold medal of Chernigof seen in the centre of the case. The inscription round it, in Slavonic, is "Lord aid thy servant Basil." In the centre is the head of Medusa and a dragon being vanquished by a figure representing Christianity. This was a kind of amulet worn round the neck by the early Russian princes and their consorts in the 11th and 12th cents. Basil was the name taken by St. Vladimir when he was baptized, it is not improbable that the amulet belonged to that sovereign.

Case 17 is full of Mongolian pottery found in the ruins of Serai.

Case No. 20, under the 3rd window, contains 2 well-preserved dishes of Persian (Sassanide) work, of the early part of the Christian era; also the remains of a gold sheath, with Assyrian winged figures. The most remarkable object in this case is, however, the silver *patera*, with a border in bas-relief, representing crocodiles, pelicans, leopards, and the lotus-flower. In the bottom of the dish are the repoussé figures of a man standing on the back of another and chiselling the first 5 letters of the Greek alphabet on a tower of 2 stories. The subject is evidently the Nilometer. Found in the province of Perm, on the borders of Siberia, and probably Roman work of the 2nd centy. A.C.

Library, &c.

The room next the Siberian Gallery is occupied by a collection of engravings, the basis of which is formed by those of the Walpole collection. It is said to contain 200,000 plates, some of which are exposed in glass cases; but they cannot be particularized, as they are changed several times in the course of the year.

The Library is contained in the next room. It was formerly composed of the libraries of Diderot, d'Alembert, Voltaire, and many others; but the greater part of the books and MSS. have been removed to the Public Library, leaving only 10,000 vols. on Archæology (some of which are of great value and interest), and a collection of works on art, together with documents relating to the different museums of the Hermitage. Only a portion of the Archæological Library is here; the rest has been removed to remote rooms.

Part of the library is railed off and appropriated to a collection of archæological curiosities and small bronzes, many of them being Pompeian, and dug out of the ground in

the presence of members of the Imperial family. The spears at the entrance are Etruscan. The 1st case at the window (A 4) contains 3 pateræ and other small objects. Case B, large silver salver (413) of Roman work, found near the river Pruth, in Moldavia. Another dish (446), of repoussé work, representing the chase, also Roman, found in S. of Russia; Mirror; 406, "Venus and Adonis," remarkable. Last Case: 14 mirrors, principally Etruscan, and engraved. The Etruscan helmet (364), found at Bolsena, is one of the most valuable objects from the Campana collection. It is of bronze, with a thin covering of silver, like the helmet (682) in the Kertch collection. It is surmounted by a crest, covered with a thin plate of gold, on which some ornaments are engraved. The indentation seen at the top was made by the stone which killed the wearer, whose fractured skull was found inside, and lies under Case B. Over the helmet are an Etruscan javelin and shield, and a pair of greaves. Against the wall on the other side are 6 bronze helmets, Etruscan and Roman. There is another fine Etruscan helmet (423) on a stand by itself, found in the necropolis of Vulci by Lucien Bonaparte; the 3 gold crowns have been restored from antique models. Over it a bronze cuirass and 2 shields. Opposite it, on a stand, is a large and massive silver pail (431), found in Moldavia, with figures of Leda, Cupid, Hylas, Daphne and Apollo, &c., in repoussé work. The vase, 373, with relief figures of amazons and handles, formed by Centaurs, was found with it. Roman work, 3rd centy. A.C.

The cases on the other side, 9 to 12, are full of statuettes in bronze and terracotta, lamps, small vases, and other articles of pottery. On the top of Case 3 two bronze statuettes, found in S. Russia (553), with a Christian inscription. In Case 1, a steelyard. An elegant Etruscan tripod will be noticed on a stand.

The long gallery alongside, opening into the library, corresponds with that upstairs painted in imitation of the Loggia of Raphael. It is called the Gallery of Drawings by ancient masters (about 12,000 numbers). The drawings exposed on the walls and in the glass cases being changed periodically, it is impossible to indicate the numbers. Among the most interesting in the collection are the following:—Landscape and head of an old man, by Rembrandt. Van Dyck: portraits of Breughel "the Velvet," François de Moncade (whose equestrian picture is in the Louvre), and head of the painter Sebastian Vrancx; a sketch for the picture in the collection of the Duke of Buccleuch. Rubens: Helen Fourment, Cleopatra, and the sketch for the large picture in the Hermitage, Magdalen washing the feet of Christ in the house of the Pharisee. Charming sketches of female heads, by Lancret; a nude figure and pretty head, by Boucher; and an old woman spinning, by Watteau.

After leaving the gallery the visitor passes through 4 rooms, containing a very large and well-arranged collection of Greek and Etruscan vases, of every possible shape and form, and more than 1300 in number, and the finest, in point of quality, though not in extent, in the world. They belonged principally to a collection made by Dr. Pizzati, and were for some time deposited at the Academy of Arts; but the most valuable specimens are from the Campana Museum. Antiquities of this description being well known in England, it will suffice to mention the 3 principal vases in the collection. In the centre of Room 17 stands the gem in this department. It is the beautiful and perhaps matchless vase found at Cumæ, purchased with the Campana Museum, and called "the king of vases." The beauty of the relief and the freshness of the gilding and colours render it one of the most interesting specimens of ceramic art. The subject represented is the Mysteries of Eleusis; of 4th centy. B.C.

The other vase or amphora next to it in beauty and size is No. 523, to the l. of the Cumæ vase. Subject, Battle of the Gods and Titans. No. 422 is

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another fine Apulian amphora, with a representation of Priam asking Achilles for the body of Hector.*

The mosaic floor in this room was excavated in the Crimea.

The visitor will pass out through a room in the centre of which is a large tazza of aventurine. The stands for candelabra at the door in the hall bear the date of the birth of the Emperor Alexander I., to whom they were presented.

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5. *Marble Palace*, on the Court Quay.—This was erected by Catherine, between 1770 and 1783, as a residence for Prince Gregory Orloff, who died before its completion. It was designed by Quarenghi, and was the residence of Stanislaus Poniatowski until his death, when it became the property of Constantine, brother of the Emperor Nicholas. At present it is inhabited by the Grand Duke Constantine Nicolaevitch. The extraordinarily massive walls of this sombre building are built of blocks of granite; the supports of the roof are iron beams, the roof itself sheet copper, the window-frames gilded copper. There is very little marble in its construction to justify its name. Over the riding-school and stables alongside is a colossal bas-relief by Baron Klodt, a Russian sculptor.

This palace is not generally inspected by tourists.

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6. *Fortress and Cathedral of St. Peter and St. Paul.*—Peter the Great laid the foundation of a fortress on the 16th May, 1703, but the present fortifications of stone were commenced in 1706 under the superintendence of Tressini, an Italian architect. The corner stone of the cathedral was laid in 1714 on the site of a church built in 1703. Consecrated in 1733, it was struck by lightning for the third time in 1756. The spire fell in and destroyed a Dutch clock which had been placed in the tower at great expense, besides doing much other damage. The body of the ch. was restored in 1757, and Balles, a Dutch architect, drew the plan of a new belfry and spire. The former was finished in 1770, and the latter was put up in 1772. The frame-work was covered with sheets of copper, as well as the globe, the angel, and the cross which surmounts the spire. The gilding of the copper cost 2814 ducats, or 22 pounds of pure gold. The present clock, with chimes, was put up in 1774. The angel and cross showing symptoms of decay, a Russian peasant undertook in 1830 to repair them. He accomplished the feat with extraordinary daring, aided only by a nail and a rope, and repaired the damage; but in 1855 it was found necessary to erect a scaffolding to the very top of the spire in order to secure it more thoroughly.

The cathedral, as it stands at present, is an oblong building, 210 feet in length and 98 in breadth. The walls are 58½ feet high. A small lantern-shaped cupola, painted white, rises over the altar. The western end is surmounted by a four-cornered belfry, 112 ft. high, above which rises the pyramidal spire, so conspicuous for its elegance amidst the many domes and cupolas of St. Petersburg. The spire alone is 128 ft. high, the globe 5 ft., and the cross 21 ft. The summit of the cross is therefore 387 ft. above the level of the ground, or 26 ft. higher than St. Paul's. It is the tallest spire in Russia, with the exception of the ch. tower in Revel.

All the sovereigns of Russia since the foundation of St. Petersburg lie buried in the cathedral, excepting only Peter II., who died and was interred at Moscow. The bodies are deposited under the floor of the ch., the marble tombs above only marking the sites of the graves. The tomb of Peter the Great should be visited first. It lies near the S. door, opposite the image of St. Peter. The image with its rich gold frame gives Peter's stature at his birth, viz. 19¼ in., as well as his breadth, 5¼ in. His consort, Cathe-

* Vide 'Catalogue des Vases Peints,' 1864. Price 25 cop. Sold at the door of the Hermitage.

rine I., lies buried in the same vault. The tomb of Catherine II. is the third to the right of the altar-screen. The row of tombs on the N. side of the cathedral begins with that of the Emperor Paul. The image of St. Paul, opposite to it, also gives the height and breadth of that sovereign at birth. The diamond wedding-ring of the Emperor Alexander is attached to the image near his tomb. The sarcophagus of the Grand Duke Constantine, brother of Nicholas I., will be recognised by the keys of the fortresses of Modlin and Zamoscz, in Poland, which lie on it. The Emperor Nicholas lies in the aisle opposite the tomb of Peter the Great, while the grave of his grandson and namesake, the deeply-lamented Tsesarevitch, who died at Nice in 1865, will easily be recognised in the same aisle by the palm-branches and garland of roses deposited upon it by those who so deeply mourn his loss.

The walls are almost concealed by military trophies, standards, flags, keys of fortresses, shields and battle-axes, taken from the Swedes, Turks, Persians, Poles, and French. The devices on the flags will be a sufficient indication of their origin.

The fortress is used as a state prison. Alexis, the eldest son of Peter the Great, having been persuaded to return from Germany, was arraigned for treason and imprisoned in the dreary casemates of this dungeon, where his father visited him immediately previous to his sudden death. The conspirators of 1825 were confined and tried, and some executed, within its walls. The cells are not shown to visitors, but the ch. is open all day. The Imperial Mint stands within the walls, and may be viewed on application.

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7. *Peter the Great's Cottage.*—This was the first house and palace built by Peter on the banks of the Neva in 1703. It stands to the right of the fortress, at a little distance from it, but on the same island. Its length is about 55 ft., and its breadth 20 ft. It contains two rooms and a kitchen; that on the left was Peter's bedroom and dining-room, and is now used as a chapel. A miraculous image of the Saviour, which accompanied Peter the Great in his battles and assisted at Poltava, is suspended there, and receives the salutations of numerous devotees. Two guardians of the house were foully murdered by a soldier in 1863, for the sake of the donation box. Numerous relics of the great reformer of Russia are kept here: the boat which he built, the remains of its sails, and the bench on which he sat at his door, are all preserved under the casing with which the entire building has been covered to protect it from decay.

The wooden church between the fortress and Peter the Great's house, at the foot of the Troitski bridge of boats, was consecrated in 1710, and is therefore the most ancient sacred edifice in the capital, the cathedral of St. Peter and St. Paul having been rebuilt since its foundation.

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8. *Academy of Sciences*, on the Vassili Ostrof, between the University and Exchange.—By desire of Peter the Great, Leibnitz drew up the statutes of this Academy, and it was founded in 1724. It is now divided into three departments: Mathematical Science, Russian Language and Literature, and History and Philology. Many eminent men have been members of it, the earliest being Baer, Euler, Müller, Pallas, Gmelin, and Schubert. It is now presided by Admiral Count Lütke, a circumnavigator of the globe, whose contributions to science, and particularly to geography, are well known. There are 21 ordinary members, 55 honorary, among whom 7 foreign, and its correspondents are above 200 in number. The State contributes about 41,000*l.* per annum towards its support. The Astronomical Observatory at Wilna is attached to it.

The Library contains 147,000 books and MSS.; among the latter may be mentioned those of the celebrated

Kepler in 18 volumes. One of its greatest treasures is the 'Code Radziwill,' or MS. of the Chronicle of Nestor, written about A.D. 1280. It is ornamented with numerous illuminations, which show that the earlier costumes of the Russians were the same as those of England, France, or Germany; the present Asiatic dress having been only introduced since the 14th century.

In the Asiatic Museum is a further collection of books and MSS., numbering nearly 12,000. Of these, 1369 vols. are in the Chinese language; the remainder are in the various characters and dialects of the East, and relate to its history, religion, and literature. There is likewise a cabinet of Eastern coins and medals in this museum, 21,536 in number. An interesting collection of Mongolian idols, in gilt bronze, illustrating the religion of Budha, will also arrest the eye.

The Egyptian Museum has surrendered its mummies to the Hermitage, and now offers little of interest.

The Ethnographic Museum consists of the dresses and implements of the various races that inhabit the Russian empire: likewise some of Chinese, Persians, Aleutans, Carelians, and of the populations of many other regions little known except to Russian travellers.

The collection of medals and coins contains numerous specimens collected chiefly by Count Suchtelen, and purchased by the Academy. The progress of the art of coining money in Russia may be well studied here. There are long gradations between the leather tokens of antiquity, the platinum coins of Catherine, and the gold half-imperials of the present reign.

The Botanical Collection has been enriched by the herbarium of the late academician Meyer.

The Anatomical Cabinet contains an exhibition of subjects by no means pleasant to view, although of interest to the pathological student. The head of a lady whom Peter the Great loved is one of the most interesting curiosities.

The Mineralogical Collection is large and useful for the purposes of instruction, and the greater part of its riches are due to the labours of the learned Pallas. It is not, however, conspicuous for many very remarkable specimens. One of these is a large and rich twisted branch of native silver from Siberia; and another, of much interest, is the large aërolitic stone that fell at Smolensk in 1807, presenting the usual black crust and prismatic form of these remarkable bodies. There is also one of the largest meteorites in Europe, though surpassed by those in the mineral department of the British Museum. It was found at Krasnojarsk in Siberia, and is remarkable for containing the mineral olivine, in some cases crystallized, which fills the cavities of the great sponge-like mass of the iron.

A large artificial globe, constructed by Euler, may be seen in one of the rooms. It is no longer a curiosity since Wyld's Great Globe was put up and taken down in Leicester Square.

Although as yet incomplete, the Zoological Collection will perhaps be of greater interest than any other to the English traveller, for it contains the unfossilized remains of the great mammoth and rhinoceros. These are especially remarkable from their having been preserved through countless ages in the ice of Siberian rivers, and from their flesh and integuments having been from this cause so preserved from decay, that wolves and bears came down to feed on them as soon as they were revealed. The mammoth was discovered in 1799, by a Tungusian fishermen, on the banks of the Lena in Siberia, in lat. 70°, and was afterwards brought away by Mr. Adams in 1806; and thus the breaking away of a cliff brought the men of the last generation face to face with a species of elephant that had ceased to exist, as a living creature, for a period which the modern geologist carries far back in time, to what may be called the geological dawn of human history.

The monster whose remains are here very imperfectly exhibited was comparatively but a small, and per-

haps a young, individual of his race. The huge skull of one of his kindred lying in the same room shows that the mammoth must have attained a size one-fourth, if not one-third, larger than the one here seen; the skeleton is also incomplete. The tusks do not belong to the same individual as the bones, and some of the bones of the legs of the left side, which was that most exposed to the ravages of wild beasts and to the influence of the climate, are made up of wood and plaster, but the bones of the right side are pretty complete, and the feet, like the head, are covered by the integuments. Only nine of the ribs belonged to the animal. A mass of the skin may be seen alongside; and in the glass case is a piece of skin with some of the reddish-brown hair still adhering to it. The hair was a distinguishing feature of this denizen of northern latitudes.

A small stuffed elephant and its skeleton stand side by side with the mammoth, for the purpose of comparison, but they look small when compared with the mammoth, which is at least 2 ft. higher and longer in the same proportion, the latter being 13 ft. long. The difference between the two skeletons, in the position of the tusks, immediately attracts notice. In the mammoth they approach closer together at the roots than in the elephant, and are in this specimen represented as extending laterally like two scythes in the same horizontal plane, and not in two parallel vertical planes as in the elephant. But this would appear to be an erroneous restoration of the tusks of the mammoth, the true direction of which was first forwards, and, at some distance from the head, inwards, exactly in a contrary direction to that here represented. Some of the mammoth-tusks in this museum are 8½ ft. long. The mammoth is also distinguished from the elephant by the greater length and compression of its skull, as well as by its superior height, giving the elephant the advantage of an apparently greater intellectual development.

Besides these, a large assortment is here seen of the bones of this extinct species of elephant (*Elephas primigenius*, Blumbach), some of the individuals of which seem to have surpassed this specimen in size as much as the latter exceeds the elephant by its side. The remains of an extinct species of rhinoceros (*Rhin. teichorhinus*) are scarcely less interesting than those of the mammoth. A head, on which the skin is almost entire, and the feet similarly clothed, and having even fine hair still on parts of them, form the most important portions of these remains. The skull, owing to its great length and the arching of the upper jaw, has some resemblance to that of a bird, and may, perhaps, have given rise to the fables which circulate among the savage tribes on the shores of the Icy Sea respecting a colossal bird of old times, the bones of which are said to be occasionally found. The learned curator of the museum has analyzed the remains of food found in the cavities of the teeth of this huge beast, and discovered that he fed on young branches of the fir-tree. There are about 15 skulls of the animal kept here. In these remains we probably see the animals of whom the ancients had heard from the Arimaspi. It is at all events certain that the tusks of the mammoth were well known to the Greeks, and obtained from their trade with the Scythians.

Amongst other objects in the Zoological Collection are well-stuffed specimens of the sea otter from the N. Pacific, one of which is 5 or 6 ft. long, and whose skin alone is valued at 200*l*. The birds from Kamchatka are also a valuable series, including some of the duck tribes of great scarcity. The sturgeons of every sea may be here seen, including species from the Amur and the Caspian. The skeleton of a huge Dugong (*Rutya stillagis*) is supposed to represent a species that has become extinct since 1745, but the claim thus urged on behalf of this skeleton has been disputed by foreign physiologists.

The Academy is open on Mondays to the public. An introduction to a member of it is of service in seeing the different collections at any other time.

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9. *The University* stands on the Vassili Ostrof, near the Exchange. It was founded in 1819. It has, in addition to the Faculties of History, Physics, and Jurisprudence, that of Oriental languages, of which a great variety are practically taught here. There is no chair of medicine, which is banished to a special academy, situated a little higher up the river, and founded in 1800, under the superintendence of the late Sir James Wylie, Bart., a Scotch physician, who did much towards advancing his science in Russia. (*Vide* "Monuments.")

This University is attended by about 400 students, the matriculations being rs. 50 (7*l.* 10*s.*), as at Moscow. The nobility only began to send their sons to Russian universities under the reign of Nicholas, when Count Ouvaroff, Minister of Public Instruction, set the fashion by sending his own son to the University of St. Petersburg. In that reign education received a more national impress, and somewhat of a military tendency, since abandoned. The students no longer wear swords and cocked hats, and are in every way liberally treated. The policy of the Emperor Nicholas in reference to education was summed up in three words contained in an instruction to Count Ouvaroff: "Orthodoxy, autocracy, nationality."

The library contains 63,000 vols. The scientific collections are unimportant. The remaining universities of the empire are situated at Moscow, Kief, Kazan, Kharkof, Dorpat, and Helsingfors.

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10. *Academy of Arts,** on Vassili Ostroff.—Peter the Great bestowed much attention on the introduction of the fine arts into Russia, and sent many young men to study in Italy and other countries. Three of those pupils attained some celebrity in Russia by painting images for the Church in the style of the Italian masters, as, for instance, those in the Church of the Fortress. The chamberlain Schouvaloff, founder of the University of Moscow, induced the Empress Elizabeth in 1757 to establish an Academy of Fine Arts. Lossenko was one of the first academicians. In 1764 the Empress Catherine II. granted new statutes, and patronised the productions of native artists, who had to be checked in their tendency of painting in a Byzantine ecclesiastical form for the ornamentation of chs., by which they obtained much lucrative employment. Under the direction of Lossenko, the Academy produced Ugruimoff, the painter of two pictures in the Russian department of the Hermitage Gallery. In the reign of the Emperor Paul the pupils of the Academy were much given to fresco-painting in the style of Watteau and Boucher, and it was only in that of Alexander I. that any great talent began to be exhibited. The Ivanoffs, father and son, and Bruloff, were the most eminent artists of that period. Then followed Brunni, Stchedrin, Bogoliuboff, Aivazofski, and many others. The present curator of the picture gallery of the Hermitage is a celebrated Russian academician, Mr. Neff, a very successful painter of nymphs.

The Russian school has lately produced 2 pictures of striking merit—'The Last Supper,' by Gay, a realistic conception of great boldness, since it entirely departs from the conventional representation of the position of the Saviour and His Disciples at table, and portrays them reclining on couches, in accordance with Eastern custom; the other picture is by Flavitzky, 'The Princess Tarakanova in prison during an inundation.' She is depicted with much pathos, struck with terror at the rising of the water which was soon to swallow her. The princess was an impostor and a state prisoner, and is erroneously supposed to have met her

* Open daily, gratis, from 10 to 4.

death in the fortress of St. Petersburg in the manner depicted (*vide* Description of Novospaski Monastery at Moscow). Sculpture and architecture have not as yet inspired and rendered very famous any pupil of this Academy.

The present building was erected between 1765 and 1788, by a Russian architect, partly after designs by Lamotte and Velten. It forms an immense pile, 1722 ft. in circumference, and 70 ft. in elevation. The façade on the Neva, about 400 ft. in length, is adorned with columns and pilasters. The portico in the centre is ornamented with the statues of a Farnese Hercules and a Flora, and is surmounted by an elegant cupola, on which a colossal Minerva is seated. On the parapet in front of the Academy are two superb granite sphynxes, brought from Egypt.

Under the enlightened directorship of Prince Gagarin, the building has been entirely transformed, and its contents rearranged. The lower floor is now devoted to sculpture, specimens and casts of which are arranged chronologically in a series of rooms, beginning with the early Greek and Roman schools, and terminating with the sculpture of the present day. Visitors will recognise casts of many familiar and celebrated objects of art. Above this floor are the galleries appropriated to painting, while the upper story contains a large collection of drawings, &c., illustrative of the progress of architectural art. A well-lighted hall in the same flat is destined for an exhibition of pictures, to be held annually in September. The Picture Gallery, once of little interest except to those who might wish to study the Russian school in its earlier stages, has been made very attractive by the fine collection of French, Belgian, and German pictures, bequeathed to it by Count Kouchelef, who died in 1864. As the internal arrangement of the picture gallery is not quite complete, the following description must necessarily be brief and imperfect.

Picture Galleries.

Ascending the handsome staircase of the Academy, the visitor will enter by a door on the left of the landing into the

1*st Room.*—Walls covered with copies of Raphael's cartoons by Bruni, Hofman, and other artists of the Russian school.

2*nd Room.*—Medals and gems in centre. Cartoons of boar-hunts and sylvan sports.

3*rd Room.*—A few pictures by Van der Helst,* Teniers, and other Dutch artists. Portrait of Mosnier, the painter. Allegorical picture, with Catherine II. in the centre, by Torelli.

4*th Room.*—Marble statue of Countess Ostermann, by Thorwaldsen. A few small pictures by Greuse, Mosnier, and Ingres, and a study by Haydon.

5*th Room.*—(The Kouchelef collection begins here.) Cussingen's marble statue of Sappho. 2 pictures by Ary Scheffer. Very good specimens of Messonier, particularly "the Smoker." A tolerably good collection of Diaz's, near the door. On the wall to the left, a startling picture by Horace Vernet, his daughter being carried away by the Angel of Death. A pool, by Daubigny, is a very pretty little picture. A 'Sea View,' and 'A Fisherman,' by C. Hoguet, are good specimens; and Isabey's 'Return from the Chase' will strike the visitor by its bright and pleasing colouring. The most remarkable picture in the collection is, however, Paul Delaroche's well-known 'Cromwell contemplating the dead body of Charles I.' This is one of three pictures of that subject painted by the same artist. Near it is 'The Death of Correggio,' by Tassaert; also 'Scenes in Morocco,' by Delacroix. The 'Sheep-pen,' by C. Jacques, is a very happy specimen of the French school. Brascassat's Bull is of great merit. The other pictures of note in this room are 'Blowing up of a Ship,' by T. Gudin; a

* As the pictures are destined to receive new numbers, they can only be designated by the names of the artists.

'Sea Shore,' with an excellent effect of distance, by F. Ziem; a 'Young girl in a wood,' by T. Couture; 2 pictures by Leopold Robert; 4 by C. Troyon; Gerome's well-known picture of the 'Duel after the Masquerade;' 'View on the banks of the Nile,' by P. Marilhat; a charming bouquet of flowers, by S. St. Jean; and, lastly, a 'Study from nature,' by T. Rousseau.

6th Room.—German and Belgian schools. 2 pictures by Gallait (see 'The Duke d'Egmont'), 4 pictures by Leys, and a very touching picture by C. Stevens, 'The Organ-grinder and his dead Monkey.' The 'Lady and Page' is by C. Becker of Berlin. The most successful picture in this room is perhaps 'The fire at a farm-house,' by L. Knaus, one of the earliest productions of that artist. Opposite to it is a good specimen of Hildebrand. There are also two or three pictures by Achenbach in this room.

7th Room.—This will be recognised by the marble bust of Count Kouchelef over the door leading into the library beyond (38,000 vols.). The pictures here are mostly by ancient masters. There is a landscape attributed to Rembrandt, and therefore rare. 'Infant Jesus with attributes of healing,' by L. Cranach; Terburg, 'Portrait of a lady;' Mieries, 'Boy blowing bubbles;' Breughel, 'Adoration of the Magi;' Cuyp, 'A gentleman leaving for the chase;' and a pleasing Greuse.

From the 5th Room, or from the top of the stairs, opposite the door leading into Room 1, the visitor will enter the

Russian Gallery, with windows facing the court. The collection of pictures by Russian artists is contained in no fewer than 15 rooms, but the pictures, although of large dimensions, are not numerous. They are arranged chronologically, and it will be seen that the first 3 rooms are devoted to very feeble attempts. In the 4th room are pictures by Brulof and Stchedrin, and a very curious representation of a Calmuck *ménage*. In the 5th room is an interesting picture by Chestiakoff, 'The Mother of Vassili the Dark snatching the girdle of Dimitry of the Don from Vassili the Squint-eyed, at the marriage of her son.' The girdle was to be always worn by the heir to the throne of Moscow, and "Vassili the Squint-eyed" had possessed himself of it wrongfully. Next to this is 'John the Terrible listening to the Priest Sylvester,' his good mentor in the early part of his reign, by Pleshanof. The picture of 'Sviatopolk the damned,' who killed his three brothers and then fled to the woods pursued by remorse, is by Sheremetef, a very promising *dilettante*. In the next room is the famous representation of the Last Supper by Gay. There is little to be said of the remaining specimens of Russian art. Two rooms are devoted to the portraits of members and presidents of the Academy, while in the 14th room are some curious, ill-executed likenesses of Cossack Hetmans, and a rather good picture of Shah Murza-Kula-Khan. The last room contains portraits of the Emperors Paul, Alexander I., Nicholas, and some early sketches by members of the imperial family. Near the door is a portrait of Peter the Great, taken after death.

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11. *Corps des Mines. Mining School.*—This large and important establishment forms a striking object on the right bank of the river, near the western extremity of the Vassili Ostrof. It is a government college for Mining Engineers on a military basis, and contains a fine collection of models and a noble Mineralogical Collection. The pupils are about 250 in number, and dressed in military uniform. The collection was commenced in the latter part of the last century, and its expense was at first defrayed out of certain sums paid by wild Bashkir tribes. The superintendents of mines were subsequently ordered to contribute all the most remarkable specimens of minerals that might be discovered. In 1816 the mineralogical collection of

the Hermitage was brought here; and in 1823 specimens of gold, and later of platinum, were added.

The models of mines, and of the machinery used in working them, are very interesting. Miners are represented in miniature going through the several operations of their craft, underground as well as "to grass." The illustrations of copper and other lodes give a very good idea of those metalliferous deposits; nor are the models of the processes of auriferous sand-washings and workings less instructive.

The collection of minerals is the richest perhaps in the world, its only competitor being that in the British Museum, which, as a scientific collection, is more complete in its material and in its arrangement, although it does not contain such an accumulation of the most splendid and costly productions of the mineral kingdom. The specimens of gold are alone worth nearly 10,000*l*., and vast sums have been spent on the beryls, tourmalines, topazes, and other sumptuous minerals of Siberia. The enormous mineral wealth of the great portion of the globe under the Russian sceptre is lavishly, although perhaps not very completely, represented in this national collection. A very cursory inspection of some of the cases will satisfy the visitor of the extent of this wealth. A large curled bar of native gold, and several nuggets and some good crystals of that metal, are exposed to view; but the greater number of the specimens of gold are preserved in an iron safe. The whole of these are from the Siberian gold-fields, especially from those on the eastern slopes of the Ural; except a few specimens from the quartz-veins of the neighbourhood of Ekaterinburg. One nugget is valued at above 4000*l*. A platinum nugget of ten pounds, and a smaller one, may be seen by the side of the gold specimens, and among the other treasures of the collection may be mentioned the following:—

A mass, weighing 67 Russian pounds, of the rare mineral petzite, composed of silver and the rare element tellurium, from near Barnaul in the Altai chain.

A very large mass of native copper from the Kirghiz Steppes.

A monster crystal of topaz of a yellow brown hue, given by the Emperor, and valued at about 500*l*.

Another magnificent and equally unique topaz crystal of the blue variety, found at Murzinsk in Siberia, of a fine colour, and with its crystalline planes well developed.

The beryls from Siberia also form a magnificent suite, worthy of such a treasure-house as the Grüne Gewölbe of Dresden. Among these are conspicuous a flesh-coloured crystal from Murzinsk, and on a stand by itself a large crystal of green beryl, with a weight of about 5 pounds avoirdupois, and valued at 5000*l*. There are also several other fine transparent crystals of aquamarine, and of the most precious variety of the beryl, distinguished by its colour as the emerald; the crystals from Ekaterinburg in this collection are extraordinarily fine, and although rarely so clear and limpid as those from New Granada or Peru, they far excel them in the size which their crystals attain.

The tourmalines, and especially those of the rose-coloured variety of this mineral termed Rubellite, which Siberia produces in the greatest beauty, are also a very rich series.

A crystal of the rare and almost exclusively Russian mineral Phenakite (a silicate of glucina) is perhaps the finest known specimen of that substance, which may be also said of a specimen exhibited here of the emerald-green garnet called Ouvarovite. The Siberian variety of chrysoberyl (an aluminate of glucina) termed Alexandrite (after the Emperor Alexander II.) is represented by magnificent specimens. This mineral, which is of an emerald-green in daylight, presents a lilac or amethystine colour when seen by the light of a candle.

Among the larger specimens in the galleries of the Corps des Mines attention may be drawn to a solid mass of malachite, weighing 29 cwt.; to a fine crystal of semi-opaque greyish quartz, weighing 19¼ cwt.; and to some very fine crystals of Siberian amethysts.

Among the minerals less conspicuous for their size or beauty are many of high value and scarcity, but they possess an interest almost exclusively for the scientific mineralogist.

There is a very curious model of a mine in the garden of the school, and through its winding passages the visitor is led by the guides, provided with lighted tapers, and initiated into the general character of mining processes. Open daily from 10 to 4. Ticket on application, gratis, on the premises.

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12. *The Imperial Public Library.*—One of the richest libraries in Europe: it occupies a building that adorns one of the best sites in the city, between the Bazaar and the Alexander Theatre, a short distance up the Nevski Perspective. It is open to readers on ordinary days from 10 A.M. to 9 P.M., and on holidays from 12 to 3; and for inspection on Tuesdays and Sundays, when a librarian accompanies the visitors and explains the various arrangements. The library now contains more than 800,000 printed vols., and about 20,000 MSS., in various languages, modern and ancient.

It owes its origin to a collection which once belonged to Count Zaluski, a Polish bishop, and numbered 300,000 vols. On the capture of Warsaw by Suwaroff, in 1794, the Zaluski library was transferred to St. Petersburg, and deposited in the present building, the construction of which was then expressly commenced. As the library grew in extent the building was enlarged, until it is now three times the size of the original depository. The last addition to the building was made in 1862, when a reading-room, which only yields in beauty and magnitude to that of the British Museum, was constructed, having been much needed on account of the increasing number of students who resorted to the library for reference. In 1854 the reading-room was frequented by 20,000 persons, and in 1864 the number had grown to 73,000. The library owes such a remarkable result to the administration of the late director, Baron Modeste Korff, who succeeded in obtaining a considerable increase in the government grant for the purchase of books and MSS., and for bringing the catalogues into their present useful condition.

The collection of MSS. is more particularly important. This, as well as that of the printed books, was enlarged by further importations from Poland, and particularly by the valuable books and MSS. of Peter Dubrowski, purchased during the early troubles of the French Revolution. The MSS. of the latter collection chiefly relate to the history of France, and form an invaluable series. They consist of letters from various kings of France and their ambassadors at foreign courts, reports, secret state documents, and correspondence of European sovereigns. These interesting papers were dragged from the archives of Paris by an infuriated populace, and sold to the first bidder. Dubrowski purchased them; and thus some of the most valuable of the state papers of France adorn the library of St. Petersburg. A volume of MSS. letters from English sovereigns is exceedingly interesting. The library and MSS. of Count H. Suchtelen have been added; and the numerous acquisitions of MSS. during the wars with Turkey, Circassia, and Persia, have contributed to form one of the finest collections in the world. The printed volumes are catalogued in MS., according to language, names of authors, and matter; and there is now a catalogue of the MSS. A list of the most curious may be useful: The Ostromir MS., the oldest extant Russian manuscript, was written for Ostromir, an ancient governor of Novgorod, and is in the Slavonian character, which bears much resemblance to the Greek. It contains the Evangelistarium, or Evangelists, as read in the Greek Church, and bears the date of 1056, about 50 years after Christianity was introduced into Russia. A Codex, containing the 4 Evangelists, on purple vellum, and in letters of gold, is interesting to the theologian. M. Edouard de Muralt, minister of the

Reformed Church, and the learned editor of an edition of Minutius Felix, has published an account of this MS., with a facsimile of the character. It was taken by the Russian troops under Field-marshal Count Paskewitch, during the Russian war in Asia Minor, A.D. 1829. For some centuries it had remained in the convent of St. John, near the village of Jumish Khan, and was supposed to be the work of the Empress Theodora. Several characteristic marks denote it to be of the 9th or 10th centy.; and, if it be really from the pen of so illustrious a personage, we may conclude that it was written by the Empress Theodora, wife of the Emperor Theophilus, who lived in the middle of the 9th centy. The characters are clear and accurately formed; nor are the contractions numerous. The marginal notes are in letters of silver. Age has altered the colour of the parchment, which is now almost black; the gold still retains much of its original brightness. There is too the Codex San Germanensis, formerly appertaining to the celebrated convent of St. Germains. It contains the Epistles of St. Paul, and has been referred to the 7th centy. Several Latin MSS. of the 5th centy., among which may be mentioned the 6 books De Civitate Dei; one of the most ancient MSS. of the works of St. Gregory, copied by Paul of Aquileia; in the same volume is a letter of Paul the Deacon, the historian of the Lombards, to Adalhard, abbot of Corbie. The works of Isidore of Seville, 7th centy. Historia Ecclesiastica tripartita et Collecta in unum, ex Socrate, Sozomeno, et Theodorito, in Latinum, translata a Cassiodoro, Senatore et Epiphanio. In the first page we read, "Hic codex hero insula scriptus fuit jubente sancto patre Adalhardo dum exularit ibi." Adalhard was abbot of Corbie in 774. Collectiones Cassiani, from the Abbey of Corbie, of the 7th centy. The works of St. Ambrose, of the 8th centy.; of Menæus Felix Capella, of Cicero, of Columella, of the 9th centy.; several religious compositions, and MSS. of various portions of the Scriptures, brought from a convent on Mount Athos, chiefly of the 9th centy.; and numerous richly illuminated MSS. from Byzantium, adorned with miniatures. The history of Eutropius, which M. de Muralt believes as ancient as the end of the 9th centy., and consequently one of the oldest extant of the works of that author. One of the most important additions to the MSS. is a copy of the Four Evangelists, purporting to be written in the 11th centy., and presented to the Emperor by the Zograph Monastery, on Mount Athos.

The collection of MSS. is further enriched by ancient Hebrew and Karaïte MSS. that once belonged to the Firkowicz family, well-known Karaïte Jews. It is generally acknowledged to be the most unique collection in the world. It contains MSS. more ancient than any codexes of similar contents to be found in the libraries of Europe. At Leyden and Bologna there is only one MS. of the kind of the 10th centy.; in France, there is no Hebrew MS. older than the 11th, and in England none more ancient than the 14th centy. The Firkowicz collection, however, contains 25 MSS. earlier than the 9th centy., and 20 written before the 10th centy. The MSS. on skins, so rare that even the British Museum possesses only a single copy, are decidedly the most ancient of any known. Nor can mention be omitted of the extracts from the Koran in the Cufic character, originally deposited in a mosque at Cairo, and brought thence by M. Marcel, member of a French scientific expedition in the days of Bonaparte. One of these extracts belongs to the earlier period of Islamism, and the rest, of a later date, were probably used as specimens of Cufic calligraphy. They may be of great use in the interpretation of Cufic inscriptions. The collection of Oriental MSS., recently enlarged by that of Mr. Khanikoff, a distinguished Russian Orientalist, is very extensive. Two presses in the MSS. room are filled with the spoils of the last war with Persia, and a collection of MSS. of extraordinary beauty, presented to the Emperor

Nicholas by the Shah of Persia, is also to be seen. Among the works of the early French writers may be mentioned, 'Les Amours de Réné, Roy de Naples et de Sicile, et de Jeanne, Gille de Guy Comte de Laval, qu'il épousa en seconde noces,' rich in designs, which, though extravagant enough, still retain much brightness of colour. The book concludes with the following lines, beneath the arms of Anjou, Naples, and Laval:—

"Icy sont les armes dessoubs ceste couronne
Du Berger dessudit et de la Bergeronne."

It is said to be an autograph work of Réné; but this may be doubted. The 'Roman de Troye,' from the library of Charles V., very rich in miniatures and arabesques. Breviaire d'Amour; Jeu d'Amour, very curious; Roman de la Rose; and the works of Guillaume de Guilleville; a Seneca and Cicero, with exquisite miniatures, by John of Bruges; the Works of St. Jerome splendidly illuminated; the Missal of Louisa of Savoy, adorned with 24 miniatures, said to have been executed under the direction of Leonardo da Vinci.

Among French historical works in MS. may be mentioned, 'Histoire de Godefroy de Bouillon,' of the 13th cent.; 'De Origine et Gestis Francorum,' of the 11th cent.; 'Les Livres Historiaux,' of the 14th cent.; 'Les Chroniques de Jehan de Courcy,' 2 vols. in folio; the original MS. of the 'History of France' of Du Tillet, dedicated to Charles IX., and adorned with miniatures of the kings of France, &c. There is also a missal here of great interest to the Englishman, as it formerly belonged to Mary Queen of Scots: it is quite perfect, except that in the illuminations, with which it is abundantly ornamented, there have once been numerous coats of arms, every one of which, from the beginning of the book to the end, has been carefully erased, and the shields left vacant. It is difficult to guess with what object this has been done, as no other mutilation is apparent. The chief interest of this missal lies in numerous scraps of the queen's handwriting which are to be found in it, breathing, in general, of her unhappy fortunes; though, it must be owned, much cannot be said in favour of her poetry, the exact meaning of which is not always very clear. Near the beginning is written across the bottom of the two pages, "Ce livre est à moi. Marie Reyne, 1553"—the last figure is very indistinct.

In another page are written the following lines in the queen's hand:—

"Un cœur que l'outrage martire
Par un mépris ou d'un réfus
A le pouvoir de faire dire,
Je ne suis pas ce que je fus.
MARIE."

In another place, in the same writing, are these verses:—

"Qui iamais davantage eust contraire le sort
Si la vie m'est moins utile que la mort,
Et plutost que changer de mes maus l'adventure,
Chacun change pour moi d'humeur et de nature.
MARIE R."

Below these lines the queen has scrawled a memorandum—"escrire au Secretare pour Douglas."

In a collection of original letters is one from Mary to the King of France, written during her imprisonment, in which, addressing the king as *Monsieur mon Frère*, and signing herself *votre bonne Sœur Marie*, she speaks of Douglas, recommending him to the future favour of his most Christian Majesty, whom she at the same time thanks for his attention to her former request in behalf of the same person. In another letter from Fotheringay Castle the unhappy queen expresses her too well-grounded fear of never being released from prison. This collection includes autographs of Henry VII., Henry VIII., Elizabeth, James I., Charles I., and his Queen Henrietta, with those of many distinguished persons: among others, Robert Devereux, Earl of Essex, in whose hand are 2 or 3 letters to the King of France, expressing the deepest gratitude and devotion to his most Christian Majesty, and entreating for a continuance of his favour. Among the most interesting letters is a long one

dated at St. Germains, from Henrietta, Queen of Charles I., to the Sieur Grignon, begging him, if possible, to procure from *the Speakers of the two Houses and the General* a pass for herself and her attendants to enable her to visit her husband in England, and to remain with him as long as can be permitted. The queen expresses her fears that this pass will be refused, but she reminds the Sieur Grignon how much she has the object at heart, and assures him of her eternal gratitude if he succeeds. She then offers to make out for the inspection of the Speakers and the General a list of the attendants whom she proposes to bring with her, in order that the name of any person to whom they object may be omitted in the pass. Amongst the letters of French monarchs are those of Louis XI., Charles VIII., Anne of Bretagne, Louis XII., Francis I., Henry IV., and Louis XIV. A writing exercise of the latter prince consists of this liberal maxim — "L'hommage est deue aux roys; ils font ce qu'il leur plait." It is repeated 6 times, and, as history has proved, with considerable effect.

In the collection of printed books, the volumes most interesting to the traveller are those which relate to Russia (*Rossica*), in all languages, except the Russian. This collection was formed by Baron M. Korff, and now contains more than 30,000 works. The collection of books in the Russian language numbers 90,000 vols.; that of Russian books in the old character, printed before Peter the Great, is very interesting, containing, as it does, the first printed version of the Acts of the Apostles, Moscow, 1568. Early European printing is represented by about 11,000 vols., beginning from Guttenberg to the year 1521. These are partly deposited in a room fitted up in the style of the middle ages.

Many literary curiosities are exhibited in glass cases. The series of printed versions of the Bible in all the known languages of the world is most complete. Here the traveller may survey with pride the amazing activity of English missionaries. The autographs of historical celebrities, illustrated by numerous portraits; the specimens of writing materials used at various periods; and the series of prints, produced by every known method from woodcuts of the 15th cent. to the art of photography, will all arrest the eye of the visitor. The features of Peter the Great may likewise here be studied in 400 various lithographic likenesses, and particularly in a Tartar costume of the latter part of the 17th cent. The traveller will find occupation for days if he be inclined to inspect with any degree of minuteness all these literary treasures, and others too numerous to mention. A room is appropriated to the reading of foreign and Russian newspapers.

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13. *Foundling Hospital.*—This establishment was originally founded in 1778, as a branch of that at Moscow. It was transferred to its present site on the Moika Canal in 1788. The buildings occupy a space of 26,325 square fathoms. About 6000 children are annually admitted on the same principles as at Moscow, and the average daily number of infantine inmates is about 750. A lying-in hospital and a school of midwifery are also attached. For particulars respecting the management of such institutions in Russia the traveller is referred to the description of the Foundling Hospital at Moscow. Admission daily, on application to the Governor. This institution is admirably conducted, and is very well worth the seeing.

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14. *Michael Palace.*—This Palace, or rather Castle, as distinguished from the Palace of the Grand Duchess Helen Pavlovna, stands on the site of the old Summer Palace on the Fontanka, which was pulled down by the Emperor Paul, who built this of granite in its stead, fortified it as a place of defence, and dedicated it to the Archangel Michael. The castle has a more gloomy exterior than the other palaces of St. Petersburg, and is of an extraordinary

style of architecture. It is in the form of a square, of which the four façades all differ in style one from the other; the ditches which originally surrounded it are now partly filled up and laid out in gardens, but the principal entrance is still over some drawbridges. In the square before the chief gate stands a monument which Paul erected to Peter the Great, with the inscription, "Prodédu Pravnuk" (the Grandson to the Grandfather). *Vide* "Monuments." Over the principal door, which is overloaded with architectural ornaments, is inscribed in golden letters a passage from the Bible in the old Slavonian language: "On thy house will the blessing of the Lord rest for evermore."

This palace was built with extraordinary rapidity, between 1797 and 1801; 5000 men were employed on it daily till finished; and, the more quickly to dry the walls, large iron plates were made hot and fastened to them for a time; the result was, that soon after the Emperor's death it was abandoned as quite uninhabitable; the cost of building it is said to have been 18,000,000 rubles; had sufficient time been taken, it would not have amounted to six. The halls and apartments of the castle are large and numerous. A fine marble staircase leads to the first story, and the vestibules and corridors are paved with beautiful kinds of marble. The floorings of the saloons were taken from the Taurida Palace, because the new ones were not ready. They have since been restored to their old places. The room in which the Emperor Paul met with his tragical end is now converted into a chapel, after having been walled up during the two preceding reigns. The painted ceilings have considerable interest. In one is represented the revival of the order of Malta, and Ruthenia, a beautiful virgin, with the features of Paul, seated on a mountain. Near her, the mighty eagle. Fame, flying from the south in terror, announces the injustice done her in the Mediterranean, and entreats the mighty eagle to shelter her under his wing. In the distance is seen the land threatened by the waves and the hostile fleets. In another hall all the gods of Greece are assembled, and their physiognomies are those of persons of the Court. The architect, whose purse profited considerably by the building of the castle, appears among them as a flying Mercury. When Paul, who was a ready punster, and who knew very well that all the money he paid was not changed into stone and wood, caused the different faces to be pointed out to him, he recognised the face of the Mercury directly, and said laughing to his courtiers, "Ah! voilà l'architecte, qui *vole*."

The palace is now the abode of the School of Engineers, under the direction of the famous General Todleben, to whom application must be made to view it.

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15. *Taurida Palace.*—This was built in 1783, by Catherine II., and given by her to Field-Marshal Potemkin after he had conquered the Crimea and received the submission of the King of Georgia. The Empress subsequently repurchased it. The palace is famous for the entertainments given there by the magnificent Prince. Later it was tenanted by Louisa, the beautiful but unfortunate Queen of Prussia; by the Persian Envoy, Khozro Mirza; and lastly, in 1830, by Oscar, Crown Prince of Sweden. The Emperor Paul turned the entire palace into a barrack for his guards; but his successor restored it to its more befitting purpose of a royal residence. It is now occupied by superannuated ladies of the Imperial Court. The garden is very extensive and well laid out. The best pictures have been removed to other collections, and there remains but little of interest within to gratify any curiosity beyond that of viewing the palace built for the favourite of Catherine the Great.

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16. *Arsenal Museum.*—Admission gratis, daily from 11 to 3, except on holidays. Tickets to be obtained

at the Artillery Department, Sergiefsky street.

This Museum, which is situated near the Taurida Palace, and opposite the new Courts of Law, will well repay a visit. In front of the building, which is that of the "New Arsenal," is a long array of cannon, Russian, Turkish, Persian, and Swedish. A brass gun of huge dimensions to the right of the principal entrance was reduced in length by the extraordinary process of a piece being taken out of it, and by the remaining parts being welded together. Peter the Great, in whose reign this was effected, ordered the statue of the man who conceived and carried out the project to be cast in bronze, and it will accordingly be seen in a recess of the lobby, which the visitor will enter, and where also stands a Russian cannon of the 17th centy. A winding staircase leads to a gallery of great length, in which the Museum is arranged. The sergeant who will accompany the visitor will first take him to the left of the staircase, and beginning with the cases on the right-hand side of the gallery will point out the principal objects of interest in the following order:—

(1.) Case containing military uniforms worn by Alexander I., and in a small case next to it the uniforms of Peter III.

(2.) Next to it the huge standard of the Streltsi troops, made of pieces of silk sewed together and adorned with many highly original pictures characteristic of that fanatical Russian prætorian band. In the middle of this flag is a representation of God the Father holding the last judgment; over his head is the azure sky of paradise, beneath him blaze the flames of the infernal gulf; at his right hand stand the just, that is, a chorus of Russian priests, a division of Streltsi, and a number of bearded Russians; to his left the unbelievers and the wicked, that is, a tribe of Jews, Turks, and Tartars, negroes, and another crowd in the dresses of *Nyemtzi*, or Germans. Under each group the national name is inscribed; and so also, by those tormented in the flames of hell:—"a Turk," "a German," (or foreigner) "a miser," "a murderer," &c. Many angels, armed with iron rods, are busied in delivering the rest of the unbelievers, the shrieking Jews, Mahomedans, and other infidels, to the custody of the devils.

A number of the accoutrements of the Streltsi lie in the vicinity of this extraordinary standard, and immediately under it are some primitive Russian cannon from Old Novgorod.

(3.) Stenka Razin's Stool. This is one of the greatest curiosities in the Museum. The great robber chief of the Caspian delivered judgment on this seat, and with the aid of the eight pistols which are set round it, he generally carried into immediate execution the verdicts which he pronounced. His stick, studded with brass nails, likewise a formidable weapon, stands behind the stool, as an emblem, probably, of authority. After committing many horrible depredations he was at last captured and beheaded (*vide* Hist. Notice).

Behind the stool is another standard of the Streltsi, of the reign of Peter and John, with a representation of St. George, and, in the vicinity, halberts, maces, partizans, and battle-axes of the 17th centy.

(4.) The objects next in importance are the revolving batteries, mounted on wheels, like ordnance, all of the 17th centy. The one that moves horizontally is composed of brass mortars, while the "Organ" (No. 1049) is a machine for firing off 105 pistols simultaneously. In the neighbourhood of the other "organs" is a collection of halberds, partizans, etc., of the reign of Alexis, to which epoch the three breech-loading culverins likewise belong.

(5.) The gun, with a mouth almost square, will be pointed out as the "Drobovik," or shot-gun, of Peter the Great. The inscription on this curious piece of ordnance shows that it was cast at Olonetz, near the White Sea, A.D. 1722.

The array of artillery on this side terminates with a row of old Russian culverins.

(6.) The vehicle to which the notice of the visitor will now be directed is "Shuvaloff's car." It is of a strange structure, and besides being profusely gilded is painted bright red. The elevated seat is flanked by kettle-drums, and protected from behind by an allegorical figure holding a spear. The artillery trophies with which this car is decorated on every side indicates the purposes for which it was constructed. Drawn by eight horses, it bore the banner or standard of the artillery, which was fixed in front of the carriage, while the seat was occupied by a drum major, who played on the two kettledrums. The car is called after Shuvaloff, who was Grand Master of the Ordnance in the reign of the Empress Elizabeth. There appears no foundation for the assertion that Suwaroff harangued his troops from it.

(7.) The automaton drummer at the end of the gallery was brought from Riga. Probably of the reign of Peter. History unknown.

(8.) At the upper part of the gallery is a very large collection of the helmets and accoutrements that belonged to the Holstein troops of Peter III. On one of the drums will be seen the inscription—

"Geschicklichkeit und Glück
Machet den König."

In a case near are the military sashes, Russian and foreign, worn by Peter III., and the four small cannon are likewise his.

(9.) The two mounted horsemen represent the bodyguard of the Empress Elizabeth. The man in European armour is mounted on a Kirghiz horse, while the other will easily be recognised as a Chinese cavalier. They both preceded the carriage of the Empress on state occasions. Close to them is a suit of black armour, worn in the funeral procession of the same sovereign.

(10.) Stand 1112 holds pistols, swords, and other weapons of the reign of the Empress Anne. Opposite a cannon with seven chambers, dated 1750. Her colours and a brass howitzer stand near.

(11.) Arms, &c., *tempo* Peter the Great.

(12.) On the top of a glass case near the window is the hat worn by Peter the Great at Poltava; beneath are his sword and other accoutrements.

(13.) Case 102 contains the white leather coat which the Tsar wore at Saardam, and in case 101 is a leather garment which he sometimes wore under his military dress. In the same case are several uniforms.

(14.) Among Peter the Great's relics will be found the cabriolet with which he measured roads, the number of revolutions made by the wheels being shown by the machinery contained in the box behind. On the lid of this box is a curious old picture, representing Peter's mode of travelling. It is a drawing of the cabriolet itself, drawn by one horse, and driven by Peter. Behind him are newly-built houses and gardens, laid out; before him a forest and a wilderness, to the annihilation of which he is boldly proceeding; behind him the clouds are serene, before him the clouds are heaped up like rocks. As this picture was probably designed by the Tsar himself, it shows what he thought of himself.

(15.) A curious revolver of large dimensions, made by order of Peter the Great. It stands opposite to a picture on glass of the battle of Poltava.

(16.) A case of uniforms, being those of the several military ranks through which Peter passed as private, captain, and colonel. No. 74 is the identical coat he wore at Poltava.

(17.) The stand No. 1856 holds the key of the fortress of Derbent, surrendered to Peter's troops. Guns and colours of the same period will be seen in the immediate vicinity.

(18.) The case which will be reached next, and which will be found close to the top of the staircase, contains, among other uniforms and some colours of the militia of 1812, the uniform in which General Miloradovitch was

shot during the rebellion that broke out at St. Petersburg, on the 14th Dec. 1825. The hole made by the bullet that pierced his heart is to be seen.

(19.) In the case at the window (No. 1850) is a cast from the face of the great Suwaroff.

The gallery is in this part decorated with Russian weapons and armour.

(20.) Chinese and Japanese warriors. Next to these are accoutrements, guns, and colours *tempo* Catherine II., and her portrait.

(21.) In a small case near (No. 238) the cross of the Russian military order of St. George, presented to the Emperor Francis I. of Austria by Alexander I., in commemoration of the allied campaign of 1813-1815, and returned after his death.

(22.) Case No. 9. Uniform, &c., of Frederick the Great. Collection of foreign swords.

(23.) A row of captured cannon, &c.: 1, Prussian; 2, Swedish (with a saddle and spurs said to have belonged to a king of Sweden, and found in Riga); 3, Turkish: shields, pasha's tails, and the brass cupolas of mosques, taken at Bender and Ismaïl in 1786; 4, Persian, with a mountain gun on a saddle; Persian uniforms taken in 1826. Cannon from Riga, and French, Portuguese, Italian, and Bavarian ordnance; and lastly, Polish guns in the corner.

(24.) At this extremity of the gallery is a bust of Alexander I. Behind it and on each side are regimental colours of the reign of Paul.

(25.) 12 brass field guns, presented, as shown by the inscriptions on them, to the Emperor Alexander I. by Gustavus Adolphus, "not as trophies, but in token of friendship, in the war of 1807." They were cast in 1779.

(26.) "Musket Battery." A very curious park of artillery, consisting of 16 pieces, presented to the Emperor Nicholas by the King of Denmark in 1853. Eight of these diminutive guns have 3 chambers, and the rest have only one small bore.

(27.) The visitor will come next to the 2 cases containing the military costumes of the Empress Catherine II. Next to these, in 3 cases, are the uniforms, &c., worn by the Emperor Nicholas. Behind them are full-length portraits of Alexander I. and Nicholas I., and in the corner the "drojky" which the Emperor Alexander I. drove through France and Germany during the campaign of 1812–1815. Opposite is a portrait of Paul I.

(28.) A steam gun, No. $\frac{10:2}{123}$, invented by General Karelin, in reign of Nicholas I.

(29.) Two horses of Catherine II. stuffed. The Empress rode the white horse astride when she entered Petersburg to take the throne on the 28th June, 1762. (*Vide* Princess Woronzow Dashkoff's Memoirs.)

(30.) Cases containing orders of knighthood, &c.: 1, orders worn by Nicholas I.; 2, decorations worn by Alexander, jewel, star, and garter of the Order of the Garter; 3, swords, &c., that belonged to Alexander I. The visitor will be struck by the great number of orders here preserved as those worn by Alexander I. The broad ribbon of the Russian Order of St. George is not among them. The Emperor would not accept it, although it was decreed to him several times by the Chapter of the Order and the senate. This order is only given for a great battle won, for the preservation of the empire, or for the restoration of peace by a series of military exploits; and the Emperor, who could not ascribe any of these deeds to himself personally, refused the honour, in order to maintain the credit of the order and its laws.

(31.) Banner and armour, of which one black, the other gold, used in the funeral procession of the Emperors Alexander I. and Nicholas.

(32.) Having returned to the top of the staircase, the visitor will find opposite to it the rocking-horse of the Emperor Paul; and, lastly, exactly opposite the top of the staircase, near the ceiling:—

(33.) A large Russian eagle, whose neck, body, and legs are composed of gun-flints, while the pinions are sword-blades, and the eyes muzzles of two black pistols. Having viewed

this ingenious object, and inscribed his name in a book which will be handed for the purpose, the visitor will leave by the same winding staircase, not forgetting to give a fee of 50 c. (or 1 rouble if the party be numerous) to the military *cicerone*.

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17. *Museum of Imperial Carriages.*—Admission daily by application on the premises, end of Stable-street.

The fine collection of carriages contained in this museum should be visited by every traveller who wishes to carry away with him the conviction that he has seen all the remarkable sights of St. Petersburg.

Commenced in 1857, the "Historical Museum of Imperial Carriages" was finished in 1860. The lower story is devoted to the travelling and town equipages of the court, while the upper flat contains the splendid *gala* carriages of successive sovereigns of Russia, many of them decorated with paintings by Watteau, Boucher, and Gravelot.

The tapestry with which the walls of the museum are covered will alone repay a visit. Most of it is from the Gobelins manufactory, having been removed hither from the Taurida Palace, where the precious webs had long lain packed up and unused. There are also a few specimens of Russian tapestry made at a manufactory founded at St. Petersburg, in 1716, by Peter the Great, but no longer extant. Around the courtyard of the museum are the workshops in which the Imperial carriages, harness, &c., are made and repaired; also the stables and offices for the grooms and other servants attached to the department of the Master of the Horse; and altogether the establishment is on a scale so large and costly as to be unique of its kind in Europe.

On ascending the principal staircase, the visitor will be struck with the beauty of the Gobelins tapestry representing the apparition of the Cross to Constantine the Great; to the rt. on the next floor is another fine piece of old tapestry depicting the expulsion of Haman from the Temple, while opposite to it is "Haman imploring pardon of Esther." The two former are from pictures painted by *Raphael*, and the latter is the copy of a picture by *Le Brun*, painter to Louis XIV., and Director of the Gobelins manufactory. At the top of this staircase is the skeleton of the favourite charger of the Emperor Nicholas. The three rooms on the upper story and their contents will be seen in the following order:—

1st Room. *Gobelins Tapestry.* "The Triumph of Mordecai," from picture by *Le Brun*, and five landscapes, &c. The furniture is covered with tapestry bearing the Polish eagle.

Carriages:—Nos. 19 to 27, made at St. Petersburg by private coachbuilders; three sedan-chairs, of which one, surmounted with an imperial crown, and with small jewelled crowns at the four corners, was made at the Imperial Carriage Works for the Empress Alexandra Feodorowna in 1856. Lastly—

2nd Room. *Gobelins Tapestry.* Arabesques, vases with flowers, Aurora (after *Guido*); the Alliance of Love (also after *G. Reni*); and arabesques (20 to 22), with border after *Raphael*.

Carriages:—On rt. (No. 1): carriage sent in 1746 by Frederick the Great to the Empress Elizabeth, restored in 1856. The arms of Russia are encrusted on the panels in imitation stones, and the imperial crown which surmounts the carriage is similarly decorated. Seat in front for pages. The Princess Dagmar of Denmark made her solemn entry into St. Petersburg in this carriage, seated next the empress.

(2.) Four-seated carriage, brought in 1762 from Paris, restored 1856. Panels by Boucher. The arms of Russia will be seen in the midst of a group of Naiades. The Princess Dagmar rode in this carriage on the occasion of her marriage.

(33.) Phaëton of bronze gilt, built

1856 at the Imperial Works, and used by high officers of the court at coronations.

(4.) Carriage obtained in 1765 from Count Orloff, and used by Catherine II. Panels by Gravelot, a distinguished painter of allegories in reign of Louis XV.

(34.) Calèche brought from England in 1795 by Prince Orloff for Catherine II. Restored 1856. Panels said to be by Boucher; on the sides, Labour, Abundance, Commerce, Industry; Cupids strewing flowers; behind, Apollo and the Muses. The driving-box is upheld by two eagles richly carved, while the back of the carriage is guarded by two figures of St. George and the Dragon. An imperial crown, jewelled, on roof.

(30, 31.) Phaëtons, like No. 33.

(9.) Carriage purchased 1794. Panels with cipher of Nicholas I.

(10.) Purchased 1797, and used by Paul I.

On left:—

(8.) Carriage built 1793 by Boukendahl for Catherine II. Restored 1826 and 1856. Arms of Russia on panels in imitation stones.

(14 to 17.) Carriages made at the Imperial Works, 1853-1856.

(3.) Carriage purchased 1762.

(12.) Purchased at Paris, 1825, by Prince Wolkonsky.

(6.) Carriage purchased by Catherine II. in 1793. Painting by Gravelot. In front "Venus leaving her bath;" on rt. panel, Juno; on l., a Shepherd guarding his flock; and behind, Olympus with Catherine bringing Peace and Plenty. The interior of this carriage, and the driving-seat, are richly decorated with Spanish point.

3rd Room. *Tapestry.*—Arabesques (49 to 51, after *Raphael*); 52, Triumph of Bacchus (*G. Reni*); 53, Triumph of Cupid (*G. Reni*).

Carriages:—On rt. (32). Phaëton (*vide* 33).

(5.) Carriage purchased by Catherine II. in 1796. Panels by Boucher. Cipher of Catherine with allegories on doors. On panels, Cupids; and on panel behind the carriage, a likeness of the empress. Two stools in front for pages.

(13.) Carriage made at the Imperial Works, 1850.

(11.) Brought from Paris, 1797. Panels by Boucher. Allegories with incrustations of mother of pearl. Painting remarkably fine.

(7.) Purchased in 1780 by Catherine II., and used by consort of Nicholas I. at her coronation. Cipher of the Emperor on panels.

On left (41). Sledge for ten people.

(36.) *Vis-à-vis* presented to Catherine II. by a Russian general, 1763. Cupids, very finely painted, attributed to Boucher.

(47.) Sledge, 1799.

(42.) Sledge for ten persons, purchased of Boukendahl, 1793, for Catherine II. Small sledges for twelve persons more can be attached to it. Used by the court in Carnival time, out of town.

(29.) Phaëton, presented by Count Blühm, Danish Minister, to Empress Marie Feodorowna.

(37.) *Vis-à-vis*, presented to Catherine II. by Count P. Tchernisheff, in 1766. Painting and incrustations of mother of pearl, very fine.

4th Room. *Gobelin Tapestry.*—Orpheus and the Muses (*Raphael*); and three landscapes.

Carriages:—The greatest curiosity in this museum is (38) the sledge of Peter the Great, made entirely with his own hands. This interesting object is protected from the influence of time by a glass case. The trunk behind the sledge contained the clothes and provisions of the great Tsar when he travelled. It will be seen that the windows are of mica. Alexander I. caused the sledge to be brought from Archangel, where Peter the Great had left it after a journey from St. Petersburg, whither he returned on wheels.

Among the other sledges in this room, the most remarkable is perhaps No. 40, "The Masquerade Sledge," built in 1764 by Brogantz, an Italian. It is of very peculiar form, the seat being composed of a peep-show box carried by a show-man. A figure in

the dress of a harlequin is placed in the front; while another, in the garb of a Levantine, is between him and the person driving. Another sledge, probably likewise used for Carnival purposes, is No. 43, in the form of St. George and the Dragon, the seat being formed by the Dragon. The harness for both these sledges stands close by. No. 49 is a mechanical Drojky made in 1801 by a peasant at Nijni-Tagilsk in Siberia. It has an apparatus behind, which once recorded both time and distance, and played a series of airs. No. 50 is a diminutive brougham presented by a merchant of Moscow in 1847 to the eldest daughter of the Emperor Alexander II.*

In rooms leading out of Room 2 is kept the harness of the State carriages (No. 1 is the harness for nine horses of the Consort of Nicholas I., and No. 2, also red and gold, that of the Consort of Alexander II.); and in separate rooms beyond are the State liveries for about 800 men, and the saddles and bridles of H. I. M., a set representing each regiment, used according to the uniform which the emperor wears at reviews, &c. In the furthest harness-room will be seen the lift and the turn-table by which the carriages are raised to the second story of the building, and moved in the direction of their proper place in the museum. It should be remembered that these magnificent carriages and trappings are used at each coronation at Moscow, whither they have to be carried carefully packed up.

Lastly, the staircase beyond Room 4 (by which the visitor will sometimes leave) is decorated with tapestry of which only 61, "The School of Athens," and 62, arabesques, are from the Gobelins looms; the rest are Russian, viz. (60) "Juno in her Car," (63) "America," and (64) "Asia."

Within the spacious court of the museum are the Imperial Stables, holding, in winter, more than 300 horses. The new stables opposite, built in 1868, contain about 150 saddle-horses, which, like the carriage-horses, are in summer dispersed over the various imperial residences. The stables may be seen on application to the officer in charge. They will give the visitor an idea of the lavish magnificence of the Russian Court, as the sum expended in feeding the horses alone cannot be far short of 10,000*l.* per annum.

* For description of other curious and historical carriages, *vide* "Treasury," Moscow.

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18. *Naval Museum.*—(Open Tuesdays, Thursdays, and Saturdays from 10 A.M. to 2 P.M.) This will be found in the Admiralty building, under the archway, over which rises the conspicuous gold spire surmounted by a ship under full sail. To naval men in particular the museum will be of great interest, as it contains a varied collection of naval models, including also those of the Russian iron-clad fleet. Besides these, there are many naval curiosities, mineralogical and ethnographical specimens, many portraits and sea views, carvings of figure-heads, &c. There are also full-sized figures of Russian sailors of the time of Peter the Great, and of the present period, and the flag of a British warbrig taken at Archangel in 1810. The collection, replete with interest, occupies two large halls.

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19. *Agricultural Museum.*—Open on Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays from 12 to 4, and on Sundays from 1 to 3; admittance, 20 cop. This is established in a large riding-school close to the Winter Palace. It should be visited if the traveller has time. Here the different processes of agriculture employed in Russia may be studied, as well as the produce of its various provinces, very prettily arranged. It is under the patronage of the Department of Domains and of the Agricultural Society.

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20. *The Smolni Church and School.*—A long ride will bring the traveller to the "Institution des Demoiselles

Nobles," at the end of Voskresenski-street, situated on a gentle elevation, round which the Neva bends to the west, and not far from the Taurida Palace. This structure, originally a convent, is a vast pile of building, designed by Count Rastrelli in 1748, and finally opened in 1834. The church is of white marble, with 5 blue domes spangled with golden stars; and the interior is an exception to the surcharged style of every other in St. Petersburg; its walls of stainless white being unpolluted by flag, banner, or trophy that tells of strife and blood. A high and beautifully designed iron grating, of which the rails, or rather pillars, are wound round with wreaths of vine-leaves and flowers in iron-work, surrounds the court-yard, and above it wave the elegant birch and lime. This edifice may be seen from the eastern suburb, from the extremity of Voskresenski-street, a mile and a half in length, and from all quarters of the city, its elevation being 335 ft.

On either side of the ch. is the Institution des Demoiselles Nobles, a building dedicated to the education of young girls of noble and citizen birth, of whom not fewer than 400 are here brought up. The Empress Maria, wife of Paul, the foundress and benefactress of the school, has a simple monument in the ch. dedicated in her honour to St. Mary. A home for widows is attached to this establishment.

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21. *Monastery of St. Alexander Nevski.*—This is one of the most celebrated monasteries in Russia—a *Lavra*, that is, the seat of a Metropolitan, and inferior only to the *Lavra* of the Trinity in Moscow, and to the *Lavra* of the Cave in Kief; other monastic establishments are only "*monastirs.*" Its proper name is Alexander Nevskaya Sviatotroitskaya Lavra (the Alexander Nevsky's Holy Trinity Lavra). It stands, as the traveller will have noticed in his drive, at the extreme end of the Nevski Prospekt, where it occupies a large space, enclosing within its walls churches, towers, gardens, and monks' cells. The ch. and convent were founded by Peter the Great in honour of the canonized Grand Duke Alexander, who, in a great battle fought on this spot, defeated the Swedes and knights of the military orders, A.D. 1241; his remains were brought here with much pomp by Peter from Wladimir. The ch. and monastery were originally built of wood, in 1712; but stone was substituted some years after. Peter's successors increased the possessions and buildings of the cloister, and Catherine built the Cathedral, one of the largest chs. in the capital. For the decoration of the interior, marble was brought from Italy, precious stones from Siberia, and pearls from Persia. It is further adorned with some good copies after Guido, Rubens, and Perugino; the altarpiece, the Annunciation, is by Raphael Mengs.

On two great pillars opposite the altar are portraits of Peter the Great and Catherine II., larger than life. The shrine of Alexander Nevski is of massive silver, and, with the ornaments around it, weighs about 3250 lbs. of pure metal; the design is pyramidal, 15 ft. high, surmounted by a catafalque, and angels as large as life, with trumpets and silver flowers; also a quantity of bassi-rilievi, representing the deeds of the Saint. The keys of Adrianople are suspended near the tomb.

The Nevski cloister has profited by the presents sent from Persia when the Russian ambassador Griboyedoff was murdered in Teheran. The Persian gifts consisted of a long train of rare animals, Persian webs, gold stuffs, and pearls. They reached St. Petersburg in the winter. The pearls, and gold-stuffs, and rich shawls were carried in large silver and gold dishes by magnificently dressed Persians. The Persian prince, Khosra Mirza, drove in an imperial state equipage with 6 horses; the elephants, bearing on their backs towers filled with Indian warriors, had leather boots to protect them from the cold, and the cages of the tigers and lions were provided with double skins of the northern polar bear. A portion of

the pearls were given to this monastery, which also has a rich collection of mitres set in jewels, pontifical robes of gold brocade, and souvenirs of individual metropolitans and princes; among them an episcopal staff turned by Peter the Great, and presented by him to the first metropolitan of St. Petersburg; another of amber, from Catherine II.; and a number of other valuables which, found elsewhere, singly, would be admired and described, but here, in the mass of treasures, are unnoticed. The crown of St. Alexander, and the bed on which Peter died, are among the most interesting objects. The Library, of about 10,000 volumes, independently of a number of very valuable manuscripts, contains many rare specimens of the antiquities of Russia.

The small chapel attached to this convent contains the tombs of several illustrious Russian families; that of the Naryshkins bears the following inscription:—"From their race came Peter the Great." Here are also the tombs of Suwaroff (a plain marble tablet); Rumiantsoff; the chancellor Bezborodko; Betskoi, the favourite minister of Catherine II.; Panin, her minister for foreign affairs, &c.; and of numerous members of the imperial family. In the cemetery attached to the building many of the great Russian families bury their dead, and large sums are paid for permission to repose in this holy ground. The graves are consequently very close together, and the new ones generally covered with flowers, a pleasing trait of feeling frequently seen on the Continent. The anchor at the foot of the cross, a favourite emblem, is placed above many of the monuments. There are between 50 and 60 monks here who superintend an ecclesiastical academy. The service is well performed at this monastery, and, being a fashionable church, the singing is good. The Emperor is generally present at a mass celebrated on the 30th August, O.S.

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22. *Preobrajensky Church.*—This ch., the "Spass Preobrajenski Sobor," belongs to one of the oldest regiments of guards founded by Peter the Great, and is one of the most considerable of the city, and more than any other adorned, both without and within, with trophies from conquered nations; consecrated 1754; rebuilt 1827. The railing that surrounds the churchyard is formed of Turkish and French cannon. Around the cannon chains of different thickness, gracefully twined, are hung like garlands between the columns; on the summit of each is a Russian double eagle of iron, with expanded wings. Within the ch. is adorned with flags and halberds; the pillars look like palm-trees, of which every leaf is a lance. Here travellers are also shown a production of Russian inventive talent, the work of a common peasant. It is a large splendid piece of clockwork, made by him in his native village, bought for 1000*l.* by his lord, and presented to the ch. Some baldaquins—canopies used in the funerals of the deceased Tsars—are preserved in this ch. with the veneration with which Russians delight to hand down to posterity every relic of departed royalty.

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23. *Church of the Holy Trinity.*—Near the Warsaw rly. stat. Consecrated in 1835, and attached to the Semenoff regiment of Guards. Its cupola is of a dark blue colour, bespangled with stars. Among the trophies in the interior is a boat flag of the 'Tiger,' wrecked on the coast of the Crimea, and another which fell into the hands of the Russian troops in a boat engagement at Gamlé-Karleby, during the allied naval operations in the Baltic.

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24. *Roman Catholic Churches.*—The principal ch., which is in the Nevski, is a most graceful building, with a finely proportioned dome and slender Corinthian columns. In the interior is a tablet of white marble edged with black, which bears the name of Moreau, and tells of the brilliant achievements

and sad fate of the conqueror of Hohenlinden.

The second ch., within the building of the "Page School," opposite the Bazaar, is of some interest, having been built by Paul when he became Grand Master of the Order of the Knights of Malta. It is in the style of the old churches of the Knights of St. John, and still contains the chair on which the Emperor sat as Grand Master. This ch. is fashionably attended, and the singing is particularly good.

The Duke of Leuchtenberg, Consort of the Grand Duchess Marie Nicolaevna, lies buried there.

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25. *Russia Company, British Factory, and Chapel.*—A brief sketch of the intercourse between England and Russia may here prove of interest. The earliest mention in history of any connection between the two countries is about the year 1070, when Gyda, the daughter of Harold, was given in marriage by the King of Denmark to Wladimir, Grand Duke of Muscovy. Embassies between Russia and the countries of the Continent were first exchanged in the 15th centy., and about this time the English Court appears to have begun to notice Russia. Henry Stafford, Earl of Wiltshire, and Baron Fitzwalter appeared in Russian dresses at a fancy ball given in the Parliament Hall at Westminster A.D. 1510.

The trade with Russia had long been in the hands of Flemish and Lithuanian merchants, when our more enterprising merchants began to devise means of getting the furs, wax, hemp, and flax of Muscovy more cheaply and expeditiously than by way of the Hanseatic towns. Adventurous spirits even contemplated reaching India through the Russian dominions. Sebastian Cabot, born at Bristol in 1477, conceived the design of reaching India and China by sailing northwards round Norway, and by his exertions was formed "The Mystery, Company, and Fellowship of Merchant Adventurers for the Discovery of Unknown Lands, &c." In 1553 three ships were fitted out by this company under the command of Sir Hugh Willoughby and Richard Chancellor. Sir Hugh with two of the vessels entered a bay on the coast of Lapland, where he perished miserably with his companions—frozen to death. Richard Chancellor in the 'Edward Bonaventure,' having been separated from the other ships in a storm, entered the White Sea alone, and reached the mouth of the Dwina. Having ascertained that the country which they had discovered was "Russia or Muscovie," he declared to the astonished fishermen that they were "Englishmen sent into these coasts from the most excellent King Edward VI., having from him in commandment certain things to deliver to their King, and seeking nothing else but his amitie and friendship, and traffique with his people, whereby they doubted not but that great commoditie and profit would grow to the subjects of both kingdoms." The fishermen, having understood, it is to be presumed by signs, the object of the expedition, "heard those things very gladly, and promised their aid and furtherance to acquaint their King out of hand with so honest and reasonable a request." John the Terrible was then Tsar, and in the zenith of his power and glory as conqueror of Kazan and Siberia. He received Chancellor, and the two merchants, Burton and Edwards, who accompanied him, very graciously, and entertained them at a feast of great splendour. In compliance with Chancellor's request that the establishment of commercial relations might be permitted between England and Russia, a letter was despatched by the Tsar to King Edward assuring him that "his shippes and vessels may come as often as they please;" "and," wrote the Tsar, "send me one of your Majesties councill to treat with us, whereby your countrey merchants maie with all kind of wares, and wheare they will, make their market in our dominions, and there to have their free market with all free liberties through my

whole dominions, and goe at their pleasure, without any lett, damage, or impediment, according and by this our lettre."

This letter found Queen Mary on the throne: and on the 26th Feb. 1555, a new Company was formed in London by special charter of Philip and Mary, conveying the exclusive privilege of trading with Russia.

Chancellor returned to Moscow in 1555 with a reply from Philip and Mary. Two merchants, George Killingworth and Richard Say, went with him, and remained there as commercial agents. The Tsar then gave the Company a charter to trade throughout his dominions without paying any taxes: on the strength of which the Bay of St. Nicholas, where the English ships had first anchored, soon became an important place of trade. In 1556 Chancellor left Russia with 4 heavily-laden ships and an ambassador from John the Terrible, Nepeya by name, with a suite of 16 persons. A storm scattered the ships, and only one reached London in safety. The 'Edward Bonaventure' parted from her anchors on the coast of Aberdeenshire and was wrecked, by which Richard Chancellor with his son and 7 Russians were drowned. The ambassador, saved almost by a miracle, proceeded to Edinburgh and thence to London, where he was received with great pomp in 1557. Voyages and embassies now became frequent.

At first the trade was most prosperous, but the English merchants began to quarrel amongst themselves, and had many complaints against the Tsar's officers. In 1567 Queen Elizabeth granted a new charter to the Company, and stipulated with the Tsar that none but English ships should be employed in the trade. The Company had a right to seize any foreigner attempting to reach India, Persia, or China by way of Russia, and to confiscate his goods. The merchants obtained permission to smelt down foreign dollars and to stamp them anew as current coin. Under such advantages they seized all the most important commercial centres Russia. They had an agency at Moscow, a factory at Holmogory (at the mouth of the Dwina), and depôts at Novgorod, Pskof, Jaroslaf, Kazan, Astrakhan, Kostroma, &c., where they sold their goods at 200 and 300 per cent. profit. The people complained of their proceedings, and the Tsar expressed his displeasure to Mr. Thomas Randolph, ambassador in 1569. The English, on the other hand, retorted that they were fast being ruined by the execution of so many of their debtors. They had certainly much to contend with—civil commotions, pestilence, and famine: their house at Moscow was destroyed by the Tartars in 1571, when about 15 English men and women perished in the flames.

John the Terrible made an overture for the hand of Queen Elizabeth, and wished to enter into a treaty to the effect that "she would be kind to his friends, but hostile to his enemies, and he would be the same to hers." The Queen was to allow persons skilled in shipbuilding and navigators to come to Russia, to permit artillery and other warlike stores to be sent from England; and "it was to be ratified by oath between her and himself that either sovereign might take refuge in the country of the other in case disturbances in their own realm should compel them to do so." Queen Elizabeth merely thanked John the Terrible for this manifestation of good-will, and proposed in 1581 that he should marry Lady Mary Hastings, daughter of the Earl of Huntingdon. The Tsar's envoy reported that the lady in question was 30 years old, "tall, well-built, though thin," that she had "a clear complexion, grey eyes, red hair, a straight nose, and long fingers." The lady was at first not averse to the marriage, but she soon asked the Queen to spare her; "for being," Hume says, "informed of the barbarous manner of the country, she wisely declined purchasing an empire at the expense of her ease and safety." In return for the hand of Lady Mary the Tsar had promised most important privileges to the Company, but the merchants were soon after informed by

the boyars that "their English Tsar was dead."

The Tsar Boris Godunoff (A.D. 1598), although favourable to the English trade, refused to renew those exclusive privileges which it had enjoyed, and other nations were allowed to participate in the commerce of the country. In 1646 the native merchants complained that the English "were ruining them by their exactions," and the following year the Tsar took advantage of the civil wars in England, and, condemning the people "who had put their Charles to death," closed all the ports against them with the exception of Archangel. Cromwell's envoy was not admitted by the Tsar, who subsequently corresponded with Charles II. when the latter was in exile. At the Restoration the Earl of Carlisle was sent to ask for a renewal of the ancient privileges of the Russia Company, but his mission was unsuccessful.

Another class of Englishmen began to visit Russia about this period. These were officers, mostly Scottish, who were then seeking their fortunes in almost every country in Europe. The most distinguished of these was Patrick Gordon, who, under Colonel Crawfurd, assisted in forming the first regular regiment that Russia possessed. About 40 English officers were employed in drilling the soldiers who saved Peter the Great by discomfiting the unruly Streltsi. The next great event in the intercourse between Russia and England was the visit of Peter the Great to London, for an account of which the traveller is referred to History. We may mention here, as an interesting fact in connection with Peter the Great's visit, that his boon companion in London, Lord Peregrine, Marquis of Carmarthen, obtained by ukaz dated 16th April, 1698, the exclusive right of supplying Russia with tobacco. In the reign of Catherine II. English naval officers came over in considerable numbers to enter the Russian navy. Many of their descendants are at present in the service of the Russian crown. In the reign of the Emperor Paul an embargo was laid on British shipping in the expectation of a war with England, which happily never arose until in 1854 it became necessary to maintain by arms the integrity of the dominions of the Sultan.

The British factory, in the mean while, originated at Archangel in 1716, when the English merchants at that place embodied themselves into a company, and fixed a rate on goods imported and exported and a port-charge on British ships. They at the same time applied for a minister of the Church. Until the trade was removed to St. Petersburg by Peter the Great it was the practice of the Factory to reside at Archangel during the summer and at Moscow in winter, having a chapel at both places and taking their minister with them. The Factory removed to St. Petersburg in 1723. The principal objects which from the first engaged the attention of the Factory were the maintenance of the Church establishment and the regulation of charges on British ships and goods. In 1753 the Factory bought with their own funds, assisted by voluntary contributions, their present church premises on the English Quay. A treaty of commerce, signed between Great Britain and Russia in 1766, having expired in 1787, 6 members of the Factory left the corporation and traded separately as "Foreign Guests," a denomination established by the Russian Municipal Code of 1785. The Factory continued to exist nevertheless, but only as a Committee for the Management of Church Affairs, and, notwithstanding some tedious disputes with the Russia Company, succeeded in establishing their right to elect a chaplain and to levy port-charges—a right which the Russia Company asserted only belonged to themselves. The factory charges fall very heavily upon British ships, which have thus been forced to support a church for the almost exclusive use of British residents at St. Petersburg.

The continuance of the charge of "church money" is an abuse of ancient custom much complained of, particularly since the charge has not the direct sanction either of the Russian

or British Government. Moreover, the accumulations of the "Committee of the Chapel of the British Factory" are not far short of 35,000*l.*, invested in Russian funds—a sum which, with proper management, and, if necessary, supplemented by pew rents, would be amply sufficient for the maintenance of the church establishment and the relief of the British poor. As far as Great Britain is concerned, both the Russia Company and the British Factory in Russia have been abolished by Act of Parliament. On the strength of an Ukaz of 1807, the greater part of the members of the Factory became "Foreign Guests," and continued to trade as such until recent enlightened enactments removed all the disabilities under which foreign merchants had laboured, and gave them in respect to their commerce the privileges of natural-born subjects of H. I. M.

The British Ambassador was ordered to leave St. Petersburg 27th Oct. 1807, and during the continental war, which lasted until 1812, the British merchants were not permitted to trade. In 1813 the Russia Company agreed to contribute 4000*l.* towards the repairs of the chapel, and in 1814 a grant of 5000*l.* was procured from Parliament for the same object. The chapel, rebuilt in 1815, is one of the handsomest places of English Protestant worship on the Continent. The copy of Rubens's 'Descent from the Cross' over the altar was presented in 1815 by Sir James Riddell, Bart. The pews are free, and will contain a congregation of about 500.

The total number of British residents at St. Petersburg and its vicinity is estimated at nearly 3000. The services at the chapel, on Sundays, commence at the hours of 11 and 4. The chaplain resides on the premises, where an extensive circulating library has also been established.

The American or Methodist Chapel, supported by voluntary contributions, is situated near the Post-office.

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26. Monuments.

1. *The Equestrian Statue of Peter the Great* ranks first among the monuments of St. Petersburg. It stands opposite the Isaac Cathedral, in the Admiralty Square. It was cast by Falconet, a Frenchman, but the head was modelled by Marie Callot. The Emperor is admirably represented reining in his horse on the brink of a rock, on both sides of which, as well as in front, steep precipices threaten immediate destruction. His face is turned towards the Neva, his outstretched hand pointing to the result of his thought and will; while a serpent, emblematical of the difficulties which Peter encountered, is trodden under foot by the spirited charger. The whole is wonderfully balanced on the hinder legs and the tail of the horse, into which a weight of 10,000 lbs. has been thrown.

The hugh block of granite which forms the pedestal, and weighs 1500 tons, was brought from Lakhta, a Finnish village, 4 m. from St. Petersburg, and may have been torn by the Deluge from the Swedish mountains; it was originally 45 ft. long, 30 ft. high, and 25 ft. in width; but in cutting it the mass broke in two pieces, which were subsequently joined. It is now only 14 ft. high, 20 ft. broad, and 43 ft. long; the statue is 17½ ft. in height. On the two long sides are chiselled the following inscriptions in Russian and Latin: "Petru Pervomu, —Ekaterina Vtoraya." "Petro Primo, Catharina Secunda." MDCCLXXXII.

2. *The Alexander Column.*—In the open space between the Etat Major and the Winter Palace stands the greatest monolith of modern times, the column erected, 1832, to the memory of the Emperor Alexander I.: —a single shaft of red granite, which, exclusive of pedestal and capital, is 84 ft. in height. This beautiful monument is the work of M. Montferrand, the architect of the Isaac Church. The shaft originally measured 102 ft., but it was subsequently shortened to

its present dimensions from a fear that its diameter (14 ft.) was insufficient for so great a length. The base and pedestal are also composed of one enormous block of the same red granite, of the height of about 25 ft., and of nearly the same length and breadth; the capital measures 16 ft., the statue of the angel on the summit 14 ft., and the cross 7 ft., in all 154 ft. 9 in. Turkish cannon were smelted down for the capital and the ornaments on the pedestal. As the whole of St. Petersburg is built on a morass, it was thought necessary to drive no fewer than 6 successive rows of piles, in order to sustain so immense a weight as this standing upon so confined a base; the shaft of the column alone is computed to weigh nearly 400 tons, and the massive pedestal must materially increase the tremendous pressure. The statue was raised in its rough state, and polished after it was firmly fixed on its present elevation. On the pedestal — which, like the capital, is ornamented with bronze— is the following short and well-chosen inscription: — "To Alexander the First, Grateful Russia." The eye rests with pleasure on this polished monument; and in any other city its enormous size would make a greater impression. The inclemency of the climate has considerably injured the monolith. The frost has produced several fissures, which have been carefully cemented. The polished surface of the granite exhibits several patches.

3. *Rumiantsoff Obelisk.* — On the Vassili Ostroff, near the Academy of Arts, in the middle of a new square. It was originally erected, in 1799, on the "Champ de Mars," in honour of Field-Marshal Rumiantsoff Zadunaiski. It was removed to its present site in 1821, and consists of an obelisk of black marble on a pedestal of a reddish marble, ornamented with festoons and bas-reliefs. It is surmounted by the eagle of Russia, with extended wings, resting on a globe, which, together with the eagle, is gilt. The total height of the monument is 70 ft. The pedestal bears the laconic inscription, "To the victories of Rumiantsoff."

4. *Suwaroff Monument*, near the Marble Palace and facing the Trinity Bridge.—This is a bronze statue, representing Prince Suwaroff on foot, dressed as a Roman, wielding a sword in the right hand and holding a shield in the left, in defence, over the crowns of the Pope, of Naples, and of Sardinia. Erected 1801. The house to the rt. of the statue is occupied by the British Embassy.

5. *Nicholas Monument.* — Between the Leuchtenberg Palace and St. Isaac's. An equestrian statue, representing the Emperor Nicholas in the uniform of the Horse Guards. The huge pedestal is formed of granite of various colours. The bas-reliefs represent the principal episodes in the life of the sovereign, which, together with the emblematical figures at the four corners, will easily be recognised by those who have studied the history of the reign of Nicholas I. The 4 emblematical figures have been cast after portraits of the consort of Nicholas and of his 3 daughters.

6. *Equestrian Statue of Peter the Great.*—Erected, as already mentioned, by the Emperor Paul, with the inscription in letters of gold, "The grandson to the grandfather, 1800." The pedestal is of marble, and Peter the Great is represented on it riding a charger, and dressed as a Roman general, with a wreath of laurel round his head, and a *bâton* in his right hand. It was cast under the reign of the Empress Elizabeth (while Paul was yet heir-apparent), by Martelli, an Italian artist. The reliefs on either side of the pedestal represent the battle of Poltava, and the taking of Schlüsselburg.

7. *Monument to Field-Marshals Barclay de Tolly and Koutousoff.*—Opposite the Kazan Cathedral. These were erected in 1836. Barclay de Tolly beat Vandamme at Culm, contributed to the victory at Leipsic, and to the

capitulation of Paris; while Koutousoff was considered the saviour of his country in 1812. Both statues were modelled by a Russian sculptor, Boris Orlofsky.

8. *Monument to Sir James Wylie, Bart.*—Erected 1859, in the inner court of the Imperial Academy of Medicine, in recognition of the services which that distinguished Scotchman rendered to Russia as President of the Academy under the reigns of the Emperors Alexander I. and Nicholas. The baronet is seated, in full uniform, holding in his hand the reformed statutes of the Academy. The square pedestal is of grey marble, ornamented at the 4 corners with cariatides of great size. On three sides of the pedestal are bas-reliefs representing various episodes in the life of the doctor, together with his coat of arms and those of the Academy.

Respecting the career of Sir James Wylie, Dr. Lyall says in his 'Travels in Russia,' "Sir James Wylie, who is chief of the military division, is one of the most notorious and most powerful individuals in Russia. . . . . Through the interest of the late Dr. Rogerson he was appointed operator at the court, and I believe he retained this situation whilst he lived in the family of Count Stroganoff. A new and important epoch in his life approached, and the whim of the Emperor Paul led to his rise in life. This monarch had raised one of his lowest attendants to the rank of count, and had bestowed upon him an ample fortune in money and property. Count Kutäisof, for this was the said count's name, was seized with a violent inflammation of the fore part of the neck that terminated in a large abscess, by which his excellency endured great pain and extreme difficulty of respiration. Indeed he was threatened with suffocation. The patient was attended by a number of the first medical men at court, who never thought of the only means of relief, the opening of the abscess. In the extremity of the disease some friends advised the count to send for Dr. Wylie in the middle of the night. On his arrival this gentleman opened the tumour, and an immense quantity of matter was evacuated. In an instant Count Kutäisof was restored to comparative health. On the following morning Paul, as usual, sent to inquire respecting the count's state, and was astonished at the above relation. Paul then sent for Dr. Wylie, and appointed him to attend the court as physician. After Count Kutäisof's recovery, and Sir James Wylie's advancement, it was jocularly reported that 'Dr. Wylie had made his fortune by cutting Count Kutäisof's throat.' . . . . After Paul's death, and Alexander's ascent to the throne, Sir James Wylie still preserved his place, and has successively been appointed his majesty's body surgeon and physician, chief of the medical military department, president of the Medico-Chirurgical Academy, &c., and has had numerous Russian and foreign orders bestowed upon him. Besides, he has been chosen a member of almost all the learned societies in Russia, and also of a few in Great Britain and upon the Continent. In addition to all these distinctions, after sharing the dangers and the honours of the campaign of 1812-13, by particular request of the Emperor Alexander, he was knighted by the Prince Regent on board one of his majesty's ships at Portsmouth, Platof's sword being used on the occasion. He was also made a baronet of Great Britain." It was Sir James Wylie that amputated Moreau's leg after the battle of Leipsic.

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27. Markets and Purchases.

The principal market at St. Petersburg is called the Gostinnoi-Dvor. It is situated in the Nevski Perspective, and was erected between 1755 and 1785.

There is in most Russian cities of importance, and generally in a central position, a *Gostinnoi Dvor*, where all the more important articles of commerce are collected for sale. It is

usually a large building, consisting of a ground floor and an upper floor. The upper floor is chiefly reserved for wholesale dealings: the ground-floor consists of a multitude of shops in which the various descriptions of merchandise are sold by retail. The dwellings of the merchants are away from these markets; and, when the hours of business are over, each tradesman locks up his own shop or stall, and commits the whole building for the night to the guardianship of the watchmen and their dogs.

The *Gostinnoi Dvor* of St. Petersburg is a colossal building, one side being in the Nevski Prospekt, and another in the Bolshaïa Sadovaïa, or Great Garden-street, through which, and some of the adjoining streets, extend a number of shops and warehouses, giving to that part of the town the appearance of a perpetual fair. The better description of Russian goods will be found in the *Gostinnoi Dvor;* those of an inferior kind in the adjoining markets, the Apraxin Rinok and the Stchukin Dvor, which lie a little farther on in the Bolshaïa Sadovaïa. Following the last-named street, which is bordered throughout its whole length by shops, the stranger will arrive at an open place, the Sennaïa Ploschad, or hay-market, the principal provision-market of St. Petersburgh, which is well worth seeing in winter on account of the odd appearance of the frozen animals and birds offered for sale.

The lanes and alleys that intersect these markets are overrun throughout the day by a crowd of purchasers. In a city containing half a million of inhabitants there must at all times be a great and urgent demand for a vast variety of articles; but there are many reasons why this should be more the case in St. Petersburg than in any other capital. In the first place, there is no other European capital where the great bulk of the inhabitants, owing to the system of Customs' protection, if not prohibition, that prevails, make use of goods of such inferior quality, or where, consequently, they have such frequent occasion to buy new articles, or to have the old ones repaired. Then there is no other capital where the people are so capricious and so fond of change. The wealthy Russians are here one day and gone the next; now travelling for the benefit of their health, now repairing to the country to re-establish their finances by a temporary retirement, and then reappearing on the banks of the Neva, to put their revenues (much diminished by the Emancipation) into circulation. This constant fluctuation leads daily to the dissolution and to the formation of a number of establishments, and makes it necessary that there should be at all times a greater stock of all things required for the outfit of a family than would be requisite in a town of equal extent, but with a more settled population.

A Russian seldom buys anything till just when he wants to use it, and, as he cannot then wait, he must have it ready to his hand. Articles, which in other countries are generally ordered beforehand from a tradesman, are here bought ready for immediate use.

The traveller will resort to these markets, partly to observe, as he lounges along the arcades, the characteristic manners of the dealers, but principally with the intention of buying some few articles as presents for distribution at home. His first object is commendable, but there is very little on which he can lay out his money with advantage and satisfaction in the markets here described. The only articles really national and peculiar to be found there are the embroidered slippers, cushions, and sashes of Torjok. These should be purchased at No. 60, in the centre of the Gostinnoi Dvor, facing the Sadovaya or Garden-street. German is spoken, and the prices are fixed. In other shops a system of bargaining is pursued which always leaves the purchaser in doubt whether he has really paid the minimum value. Gold brocades are sold in a row of shops called the Perinny Riad. They are much used in England for furniture. There are several old curiosity and picture shops within the Apraxin Dvor, where old china and many

articles of virtù may be picked up by those who know the language and can bargain. Stolen goods of every description abound in the latter market. Both the Apraxin and the Stchukin markets were burned down in 1862. They have since been handsomely rebuilt. For purchases of jewellery the tourist is recommended to the "English Magazine," where by far the best selection of goods in every department will be found. The prices are perhaps a little higher than in other shops, but the superiority of the articles and the advantage of speaking English afford full compensation. Schneegas, jeweller, in Great Morskoy Street, also keeps a large stock of malachite and lapis-lazuli ornaments at moderate prices.

Travellers should visit Sazikof's shop in the Nevsky, famous for silver goods. Many pretty little articles may be purchased there for keepsakes.

Circassian belts and ornaments, in steel and silver, are much in fashion, as well as Caucasian hoods, of bright-coloured cloth and handsomely braided. These are sold in two shops in the Perspective, on the left-hand side, a little beyond the Kazan Cathedral. The best shop is Hazarof's. Views of St. Petersburg may be obtained at Dazziaro's, Beggrow's, and at the "Palette de Raphael."

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28. Hospitals and Medical Advice.

The capital is well provided with hospitals endowed by the State and supported by contributions. Small monthly payments are exacted, but there is a certain number of free beds in each hospital, to which the poor have access. The principal hospitals are:—

1. Obukhoff, founded 1782. This is a building of 2 stories, with a frontage of 600 ft., and stands in very spacious grounds of its own. The number of beds is 450, but there is a special hospital in connection with it, for prisoners, with 200 beds. Fifteen medical men are attached to it.

2. Kalinkin, established 1779, and now appropriated to female syphilitic cases.

3. Marie Hospital, established 1803. An immense building with 2 wings, 400 beds.

4. "Chernorabochy," or hospital for workmen. Supported out of a tax of 60 cop. levied on the lower classes in towns.

In addition to these hospitals, conducted on the most perfect systems, are many charitable institutions, such for instance as the Hospital and Dispensary of the Sisters of Mercy, the Ophthalmic Hospital, the Hospital of St. Mary Magdalen, &c.

A medical man will have no difficulty in obtaining admission to the civil and military hospitals of St. Petersburg.

The average daily number of sick in the civil hospitals of St. Petersburg, during an ordinary season, is 4000. The average mortality in the civil hospitals is 1 in 16 or 17. There is a lunatic asylum, with about 250 inmates, a few miles on the road to Peterhof. The practitioners at all these establishments are mostly German; and the mortality, from the weakness of the constitutions of the patients, and partly from their unbelief in medical science, is excessive, compared with that of other cities. The death-rate in European Russia is 3·43 per cent. Great mortality has hitherto prevailed in the naval and military hospitals: at the former the ratio of deaths to recoveries, in 1857, was 1 in 14½, the surgical operations being more especially fatal; but a better system of diet and other improvements have been introduced with a beneficial effect. Travellers are warned not to drink the water of the Neva; its disagreeable effects are sometimes felt even when taken in the shape of tea. For further medical information, *vide* Introduction.

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29. Theatres.

There are four public Theatres at St. Petersburg: 1, the Great Theatre; 2, the Marie Theatre (both these in the same square between the Moika and Catherine Canals); 3, Alexander Theatre, in the Nevski Perspective; and 4, Michael Theatre, near the palace of that name: all under the management of government.

1. The *Great Theatre* is devoted during the winter season (with the exception of Lent) to the Italian opera, for which one of the best troupes in Europe is always engaged. The first great musical work produced in Russia, Paisiello's 'Barbiere di Siviglia,' was originally performed at St. Petersburg in 1780. All the most approved operas are reproduced here with much success. The *mise en scène* is always most perfect, and the costumes rich and true. A very large sum is devoted yearly by the government to the cultivation of the histrionic art in all its branches, and a large school is maintained for the education of actresses and ballet-dancers. The ballets here given are very much frequented. Of these the 'Fille de Pharaon,' the 'Tsar devitsa' or Maiden Tsar, and the 'Golden Fish' (both the latter being based on national popular legends), are admirably rendered. The best ballets are generally given on Sundays.

The Great Theatre was originally built in 1784; it was burnt down in 1817, and renovated in 1836. There are 6 tiers of boxes and 17 rows of chairs, or room for about 3000 persons. The prices of the boxes vary from 25 rs. to 5 rs. The pit-stalls of the first 3 rows are 8 and 6 rs.; the furthest are 2 rs. On benefit nights the prices are considerably raised. Masked balls on a large scale, frequented by the Emperor and members of the Imp. Family, are given here during the winter season.

2. The *Marie Theatre* is appropriated to the Russian opera and drama. Profane music has been much cultivated in Russia of late years. Bortniansky was a great reformer of Russian sacred music about the year 1780, and Alexis Lvoff was the first Russian who composed operatic music. He is the author of the Russian National Anthem. The most remarkable composer, however, is Glinka,, whose opera of 'Jizn za Tsaria' (Life for the Tsar) is admirable for the correctness of its composition, and for the beauty of its melodies, which are all national. The subject of this very popular opera is the devotion of a peasant who saved the Tsar Michael by leading a detachment of Poles who were seeking him into a deep and thick forest, where they all perished. Verstofsky has written the music of several *vaudevilles*, and some comic operas, of which the best known is 'The Tomb of Askold.' The opera by Glinka affords an opportunity of studying Russian melodies and costumes, which should be eagerly seized by the traveller. The "Mazurka," a Polish dance, much in fashion in Russia, is introduced into one of the acts. Shakspearian tragedies in a Russian translation are occasionally given here. The prices are lower than at the Great Theatre.

3. *Alexander Theatre.*—Here Russian comedies and dramas are acted. Griboyedoff's comedy, 'Sorrow comes from Wit,' a satire on Moscow society, and Gogol's 'Revisor,' in which the corruption of the old Russian official is well portrayed, are well worth seeing for the sake of the acting and the scenes of Russian life which they hold up to view, and which are in great part intelligible, even in the absence of a knowledge of the Russian language. This theatre was opened in 1832. It has 6 tiers of boxes and 9 rows of stalls. The prices are very moderate. It possesses none of the beauty and magnificence of the two theatres already mentioned.

4. *Michael Theatre*, opened in 1833. French and German plays are performed here in winter by troupes as good as any on the Continent. A[t]

the most popular farces of the Parisian stage are reproduced here with very great success.

The Great and Michael Theatres are generally very numerously attended. Travellers should apply or send early for tickets. French spoken at the box-office. In summer, theatrical representations are occasionally given at a theatre on Kamennoi island.

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30. *Clubs and Restaurants.* The principal club is called the English Club, because it was founded in 1770 by an English merchant of the name of Gardener. It is situated on the Fontanka Canal, near the Anitchkoff Bridge. Admission through a member. Very few of the English residents now belong to it. The club which is likely to be of most use to the English traveller is the Commercial Club, on the English Quay, between the English Chapel and the Nicholas Bridge. Here travellers can be inscribed by their bankers or friends for the whole period of their residence at St. Petersburg, and enjoy all the advantages of members. Excellent dinners and a table-d'hôte on "exchange days" (Tuesdays and Fridays) are among those advantages. The 'Times' and other English newspapers are kept in the reading-room. The Nobility Club, the German or Schuster Club (so called after the name of the founder), and the Club of the Russian Merchants, are large establishments, where subscription balls are given during the winter season. The Agricultural Club, in the Nobility Assembly-house, combines advantages of a social and domestic character with those of a learned society, where subjects of rural economy are formally discussed. The Imperial Yacht Club, which is the most exclusive, is in Great Morskoy-street.

The summer station of the *River Yacht Club* is on Yelaghin Island, where the large collection of boats and the building-sheds of the club will well repay a visit. Vide *Drives*. The best *Restaurants* are Dusaux's, Martin's, and Borel's, in Great Morskoy-street, and Donon's, at the Singer's Bridge. Dinners from 1 r. to any price.

Excellent luncheons may be obtained at Wolff's and Dominique's Restaurants, both in the Nevski Perspective.

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31. *Learned Societies.*—Foremost amongst these is the Imperial Geographical Society, established in 1845, and now under the presidency of H.I.H. the Grand Duke Constantine. It numbers about 600 fellows, besides honorary and corresponding members. Its annual report is published in Russian. The proceedings of the Society contain most valuable contributions to geographical science, especially with reference to the distant and little-known countries of Central Asia. The library is well supplied, and there is a very interesting ethnological museum, representing the costumes of the several races subject to Russia. The meetings take place only in winter. Admission on application to the secretary. Among the other societies are the Imperial Archæological, the Russian Entomological, the Free Economical, the Imperial Mineralogical, and the Historical. There are several societies of a benevolent character, and an excellent association called "The Society for the Encouragement of Art," where pictures and other objects of art, by foreign and native artists, are exhibited all the year round. The rooms of this society are at the Police Bridge, in the Nevsky. Admission on payment of 25 copecks. Very pleasing and characteristic pictures by Russian artists may be bought there.

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32. *Private Collections.*—Besides the celebrated Leuchtenberg Gallery, formerly at Munich, but now in the palace of the Duke of Leuchtenberg, which would require a catalogue by itself (see Waagen), the private collection of H.I.H. the Grand Duchess Marie contains several fine pictures by the an-

cient Italian and Spanish masters, as well as many good specimens by modern artists. The palaces of the Russian nobles contain likewise very valuable and interesting collections of art. The Counts Serge and Paul Stroganoff, who are both distinguished connoisseurs and lovers of art, possess pictures which would be considered valuable acquisitions in any public gallery. The collection of Count Serge, which is in the Stroganoff House, a fine building by Rastrelli, at the Police Bridge, opposite the "Society for the Encouragement of Art," contains amongst other treasures an admirable head by Leonardo da Vinci, a sketch by Correggio, 2 excellent portraits by Tintoretto, 4 Rubens, 2 capital portraits by Van Dyck, a beautiful and highly finished cabinet picture by Rembrandt, as well as excellent specimens of Teniers, Cuyp, Adrian Vandevelde, Hackert, and Van der Heyden. The collection of Count Paul Stroganoff is worthily lodged in one of the prettiest houses in St. Petersburg, at the corner of the Sergiefskaia and the Mohkovaia, a chef-d'œvre of elegance and comfort, built by Monighetti, a living architect of great taste. The principal pictures in this small but choice collection are by Filippino Lippi (a small but beautiful specimen of this master), Cima da Conegliano, Sebastian del Piombo, Rubens, Van der Helst, Nicolas Maes, Peter de Hoogh, Adrian Vandevelde, and Ruysdael.

A few doors from Count P. Stroganoff's house in the Mokhovaia is the collection of Mr. Yakuntchikoff, containing some good pictures of the modern Dutch, Flemish, and French schools; amongst others, the repetition of the great picture in the Luxembourg, by Rosa Bonheur. Mr. Drujinin, a wealthy proprietor of mines in Siberia, who lives in the same street, has a beautiful sea-piece by Ruysdael, and some curious specimens of precious stones and minerals from his mines. The once celebrated collection of marbles, bronzes, pictures, and curiosities of all kinds, which belonged to Monferrand the architect, is now dispersed. The collection of Senator Smirnoff contains some excellent portraits: Catherine II., by Lampi; the painters Largillière, Rigaud, and David, by themselves; Cosmo I., by Bronzino; a portrait, by Antonio Moro; the Infant Don Fernando, said to be by Rubens—an excellent portrait, most probably by Van Tulden; a fine head of a Monk, of the Spanish school; and amongst the modern pictures by French artists, a small Decamp and Gudin.

The remaining collections of any note are those of Prince Gortchakoff, Count Peter Schouvaloff, Count Orlof-Davydoff, Prince Wladimir, Bariatinski, and Doctor Kozlof.

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33. *Summer Gardens.*—This is the Hyde Park of St. Petersburg, and a favourite lounge of the inhabitants, especially in spring, before the capital is deserted for summer residences. The gardens were laid out in 1711, and are half a mile in length by a quarter in breadth. The walks are well shaded by fine old trees and ornamented with marble statues, which are cased in wooden boxes during winter to protect them from the action of the frost. In one corner stands the Summer Palace in which Peter the Great dwelt, and for which, in fact, the gardens were created. It was also the residence of the Empress Anne; and Biren, the tyrannical regent, was arrested there. A few articles of furniture used by Peter are preserved inside. Near this house is a handsome monument to the memory of Kryloff, the great Russian fabulist. The bronze bas-reliefs and ornaments represent the subjects of his best compositions. During the short months of the Russian summer numerous groups of prettily dressed children will be found playing under the shadow of him who wrote so well for their instruction and amusement. At the other end of the garden is a beautiful urn of porphyry, presented by the King of Sweden, and of which an exact counterpart exists in Her Majesty's grounds at Balmoral. T

handsome iron railing fronting the Neva was put up in 1784, after a design by Velten, then Director of the Academy of Arts. In former days the sons and daughters of Russian merchants and tradesmen, dressed in their best apparel, assembled in these gardens on Whit-Monday to choose partners for life, but the custom is now almost obsolete. The large square alongside is called the "Tsaritsin Lūg" or Empress' Field. Reviews are held there.

At the entrance of the garden, facing the Quay, a Chapel dedicated to St. Alexander Nevsky, marks the spot where the Emperor Alexander II. stood when his life was attempted by Karakozoff, in 1866. The text in letters of gold over the principal portico is "Touch not mine anointed." The chapel was raised by public subscription, and is therefore a monument of the love and sympathy of the Russian people.

Steamers leave from opposite the summer gardens for the several islands of the Neva.

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34. *The Exchange and Private Bankers.*—A fine building at the extremity of Vassili Island, originally erected 1784, after designs by Quarenghi; but entirely rebuilt between 1804 and 1816, by Thomon. The great hall of the Exchange is of very large dimensions, and is lighted from above. A colossal bust of Alexander I. is placed in it. Stately flights of steps lead from this noble edifice to the river, and on the open space in front of it are two massive "Columnæ Rostratæ" above 100 ft. in height, decorated with the prows of ships, in honour of Mercury, and each surmounted by three Atlantas that support hollow globes, in which fires are sometimes lighted. It should be visited during "change" hours between 3 and 5 P.M. There is an extensive garden beyond, which is converted in spring into a market for birds, dogs, and other early importations on the opening of the navigation. The Custom-house is immediately behind.

The bankers' offices are situated near the English Quay. The chief banking-houses are "St. Petersburg Joint-stock Commercial Bank;" Messrs. Thomson, Bonar, and Co.; and Messrs. Wyneken and Co. Business hours, 10 to 4.

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35. *Post and Telegraph Offices.*—These are almost contiguous, in Potchtamsky-street which runs off, and is partly parallel with, the boulevard that extends from the Nicholas Bridge to St. Isaac's. Letters for England and the Continent must be posted early in the morning. Delivery about 3 P.M. The postage to England is 26 cop. *via* Belgium, and 29 cop. *via* France, or 10*d*., and 10 cop. to any part of the interior. The town-post goes out several times a day. Boxes for town and country letters in all the principal thoroughfares, and at the chief hotels. The town postage is 5 copecks. Stamps only sold at the post-office, although kept at the hotels. Prepayment of foreign letters is not obligatory. No newspapers are transmitted by post to Russia that have not been subscribed for at St. Petersburg. The charge for a telegram to London is 3 rs. for 20 words, including the address. The time of transmission varies according to the amount of business; 4 hrs. is about the minimum. Messages in English taken. Telegrams may be sent hence to Teheran and to Kiakhta in Siberia for Pekin.

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36. *Summary of Buildings.* — Although the principal objects of interest which are to be seen at St. Petersburg have now been enumerated, a description of the city would not be complete without a cursory mention of the following buildings and institutions.

1. *Leuchtenberg* or *Marie* Palace, behind St. Isaac's, built in 1844 for the Grand Duchess Marie; fitted up with most exquisite taste, and has a large winter garden. The picture gallery has been described. The pa-

lace occupies the site of a house which once belonged to Prince Czernisheff, where the Emperor Paul entertained the Prince de Condé. On that occasion the apartments were furnished in exact imitation of those at Chantilly when Paul visited him in 1783. The servants wore the liveries of the Prince, and over the entrance of the palace an inscription stated it to be the "Hôtel de Condé." 2. Palace of the Grand Duke *Nicholas*, at the Nicholas Bridge, recently constructed. 3. Palace of Grand Duke *Michael* on the Court Quay. 4. *Michael* Palace, occupied by the Grand Duchess Helen, in Michael Square, built by Rossi in 1822; a vast and elegant edifice, ornamented in front with pillars of the Corinthian order. A large garden is attached to it. 5. *Anitchkoff* Palace, in the Nevsky, built in 1744, by Count Rastrelli, for the Empress Elizabeth, who gave it to Count Razumofski. It reverted to the crown in 1791, when it became the seat of the "Cabinet," or that of the administration of the Imperial household. The widow of the Emperor Nicholas resided and died there, but it is now occupied by the Tsésarevitch and his consort Marie Feodorowna, late Princess Dagmar of Denmark. On the bridge beyond the palace are the well-known equestrian statues by Baron Klodt. 6. The large house over the bridge, on the rt., is the residence of the princely family of *Beloselski-Beloserski*, containing the most beautiful staircase and the richest suite of apartments of any of the private palaces of St. Petersburg. It is full of pictures and costly objects of art. 7. The *State Bank* in Great Garden-street, opposite the Stchukin Dvor. This handsome building is likewise due to the architect Quarenghi. It is a State institution, ostensibly for the promotion of trade, but in reality a branch of the treasury and an agency between the government and the public for sundry financial transactions. 8. The *establishment for printing the notes* of this bank and other government paper will repay inspection. It lies in the direction of the Peterhoff Railway Stat. There is an Artesian well on the premises, 9. The *Town Hall*, on the Nevski, surmounted by a signal tower. The business of the town corporation is transacted here. 10. Opposite the Gostinnoi Dvor is the *Passage* or arcade in which pedestrians take refuge in case of rain. The shops are principally kept by foreigners. 11. *Riding School* of the Horse-guards and *Barracks*, along the boulevard near the Grand Duke Nicholas' Palace. These may be inspected by military men on application to some of the officers. 12. The riding-school at the opposite end of the square, near the palace, is now converted into a *Museum of Agriculture*, where the various processes of agriculture used in Russia are exhibited. 13. *Military Schools*, *Technological Institute*, &c. Travellers who desire to study the system of education pursued in Russia will probably obtain letters of introduction which will procure for them the information they seek. 14. *Physical Observatory*, alongside the School of Mines, where the temperature of the atmosphere and other phenomena are carefully recorded. 15. *The Cemeteries* of Smolensk and Volkova will afford materials for reflection, especially on the first Monday after Easter, or "Recollection Monday." Thousands congregate to the cemeteries three or four times during the year, bringing with them provisions of every kind, which are consumed over the graves of departed relatives and friends. Much taste and feeling are exhibited in the monumental records of the dead; they illustrate, better than words, the kindly and sympathetic temperament of the Russian people.

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37. Sports and Amusements.

In summer the tourist can join the matches of the St. Petersburg *Cricket Club*, or the excursions of the *English Boat Club*; he can play at *Tennis* in a court adjoining the cricket-ground,

on Vassili Island, and shoot black-cock, capercailzie, snipe, and duck, from July to October. Fishing is not much cultivated, but there is good sport to be had a short way out of town, towards Finland. In winter there is bear, elk, and wolf hunting in the neighbourhood of the capital; hares are so plentiful as scarcely to afford any sport. A subscription pack of fox-hounds has long been kept, with occasional intermissions, at a hunting-lodge called Goréloé, supported by the English residents. In winter, skating and going down ice-hills afford most healthy and mirthful exercise. Drives in troikas, or sledges drawn by 3 horses abreast, complete the amusements to which the traveller in Russia will be welcomed by any member of the British community at St. Petersburg to whom he may have been recommended. For further particulars respecting sport, *vide* Introduction.

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38. *Drives.* — The first drive the tourist should take in summer is to the islands of the Neva, a little before sunset, the hour at which the rank and fashion still in the neighbourhood of St. Petersburg assemble at the "Point" (*Strelka*) of Yelagin Island. Crossing the Trinity Bridge, he will be carried swiftly along the *Kamenno-Ostrofski Prospect*, lined on either side, first with the houses of the poorer classes, and further on with suburban retreats of varying attractions. Beyond *Kamennoi*, or Stone Island, is *Krestofski*, or Cross Island, on which stands the Beloselski-Belozerski Château. Beyond this again is *Yelagin* Island, with an imperial residence, very prettily laid out and charmingly situated. The view from this château is delightful; first the gardens, with their neat English-looking gravel walks and flower-beds; then the broad sheet of the Neva, with its verdant banks, dotted with picturesque châlets standing out from a background of sombre pine-trees; and beyond again, the lofty golden spires of the capital rising in the distance and glowing with the last red rays of the setting sun. There are few above the condition of tradesmen who do not afford themselves the luxury of a cottage or a few rooms beyond the precincts of the hot and dusty city. Men of business retire to the islands or to Peterhof after the hours of "change," and set in motion a great number and variety of conveyances that enliven the *chaussées* and make them look somewhat like the Epsom road on Derby day. Small river steamers convey great numbers from a landing-stage opposite the Summer Garden. The tourist should visit the extensive establishment of the River Yacht Club on Yelagin Island. On his way back to town he should drive to *Isler's* establishment for *Mineral Waters* at *Novaia Derevnia*, the Cremorne of St. Petersburg without the dancing. Several other places of entertainment, with dancing, will be passed; but a visit to these we leave to the tastes and inclinations of the tourist.

The *Botanical Gardens* on Apothecaries' Island, open to the public, may interest the horticulturist. The science of hot-house gardening is here brought to the utmost perfection, and one of the finest assortments of tropical plants has been collected amid the snows of the north. The collection of Orchidaceous plants is one of the best in Europe.

The more distant drives can only be undertaken under the guidance of a resident. *Pergola*, *Murina*, and other places further in Finland, are strewed with pretty villas, where merriment and hospitality abound.

A very short drive through the streets of St. Petersburg will bring the visitor to the *Moscow Gate* or Triumphal Arch, where the old road to the ancient capital begins. It is in the Greek style of architecture, and was finished in 1838, by Stassof, Court architect. Twelve columns 7 ft. in diam. and 68 ft. high, support an attic ornamented with 12 angels in bas-relief, while above is the inscription: "To the triumphant Russian armies, in memory of their deeds in

Persia, in Turkey, and in the suppression of the troubles in Poland, in the years 1826, 1827, 1828, 1829, 1830, 1831." On the city side the inscription is in Latin, on the other in Russian. This magnificent monument is well worth seeing. (For description of Narva Triumphal Arch *vide* Excursion 1.)

The Gardens of *Bezborodko*, a short distance up the river beyond the Summer Gardens, may be reached in one of the small steamers that ply on the river. There is an establishment there, called the Tivoli, where a good dinner may be obtained, and where balls are given in autumn. It is also a place for picnics and skating under shelter in winter.

The Gardens of *Catherinenhof*, in the direction of the road to Peterhof, are only visited by the public on the 1st (13th) May, to hail the return of spring. The old palace of Catherinenhof is shown.

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39. Excursions.

1. To Cronstadt, Oranienbaum, Peterhof, Strelna, and Monastery of St. Sergius.

This excursion may be made in one day, or each place may be visited separately, according to the time at the disposal of the tourist. The traveller may even reverse the itinerary and proceed first to Sergi or Peterhof. The following is, however, a sketch of the excursion in its entirety.

Leaving the Quay of Vassili Island at an early hour (about 9 A.M.), Cronstadt is reached by steamer in an hour and a half.

Cronstadt, the port of St. Petersburg, has a Pop. of 37,000 Inhab., including the garrison (about 25,000). The fortifications are extensive, and were begun by Peter the Great in 1703, when he dispossessed the Swedes. The first fort that he erected was Kronschlott, opposite the entrance of the present harbour. Prince Menschikoff conducted the works under the directions of Peter, and one of the forts still bears his name. Succeeding governments have strengthened the fortifications, and secured the approach from seaward by sinking ships and erecting batteries, especially after the visit of the Baltic Squadron in 1854. It has long been the chief station in the Baltic for the Russian fleet, moored in a harbour in the rear of the fortifications. The westernmost harbour is appropriated to merchant vessels, of which about 1300 enter the port annually; no fewer than two thirds being English. The bar at the mouth of the Neva carries a depth of only 8 to 10 ft., and presents a very narrow channel, navigable by ships of small burthen. The larger vessels discharge and load at Cronstadt, their goods being transported to and from St. Petersburg in lighters. The declared value of the imports cleared at the custom-house at St. Petersburg amounts annually to about 13,000,000*l.*; and the exports (principally tallow, corn, hemp, and flax) to about 7,000,000*l.*

This trade gives rise to considerable activity at Cronstadt between May and November, and enlivens the town, which in the winter season is exceedingly dreary. The only objects to interest the stranger are the fortifications and the harbour, which he can view by taking a walk to the "Molehead," or by crossing the "Merchants' Harbour" in a ferry-boat. The canal is bordered with granite and an iron railing, begun by Peter in 1721, and finished by the Empress Elizabeth. Another canal, commenced in 1782, unites the "Italian Pond" with the Merchants' Harbour. The dry docks will admit the largest vessels of war, and a splendid steam factory almost rivals Keyham in its mechanical appliances. These can only be viewed by permission of the military authorities. Strangers may drive to the extremity of the island, 3 or 4 miles beyond the citadel-gate, where they will obtain a better view of the renowned forts of Cronstadt and of the

South Channel, now dammed up, but which Sir Charles Napier ascended to the parallel of the great Naval Hospital, near the pier for the boats to St. Petersburg. The Summer Garden, originally planted by Peter the Great, contains a restaurant where refreshments may be obtained. Near to it and to the governor's residence, on a square at the back of the middle harbour, is a statue of Peter the Great, by Baron Klodt.

There is a British chapel at Cronstadt, frequented by seafarers and by the English residents, who are about 50 in number. It is also the seat of a British vice-consulate.

The British Seamen's Hospital opposite the English chapel will be visited by those who take an interest in such institutions. It was established in 1867 by private subscription, and is under the patronage of H.R.H. the Prince of Wales, and of H.E. the British Ambassador at the Court of Russia. There is sufficient accommodation for 50 or 60 patients, although the number of beds, when no epidemic prevails, is only 35. An inspection of the premises will show that nothing has been neglected to make the establishment equal to the best in Europe, or even anywhere, on the same scale. The purchase of the ground and the building and furnishing expenses amounted to about 5500*l.*, of which 2000*l.*, were advanced by Mr. Edward Cazalet, an English merchant at St. Petersburg. This debt is to be gradually paid off out of the prospective contributions of the charitable, as well as out of the profits of the institution arising from a compulsory tax on all British vessels discharging or loading at Cronstadt, at the rate of 1 rouble per man of the crew of a sailing vessel, and 50 copecks per man of the crew of a steamer—a tax that brings in about 10,000 rs. per annum. The number of British seamen who have the advantage of this excellent institution during the months of summer is between 13,000 and 14,000, but indirectly its benefits have been extended to nearly 10,000 seamen of other nations, for whom another hospital has since been established on a similar basis.

The affairs of the British Seamen's Hospital are managed by a committee of which H.B.M. Consul at St. Petersburg is ex-officio chairman. Permission to view the institution will readily be granted by the resident Medical Officer.

Refreshments may be had at the British Hotel, in the principal street of Cronstadt, or at one of the Clubs (the Naval and the Merchants') if the tourist be introduced by a member. English is spoken in most of the shops, and even the drojky-drivers are able to converse in "pigeon-English."

Oranienbaum.—Small steamers ply several times a day between Cronstadt and Oranienbaum, about 5 m. distant. The traveller is recommended to engage a carriage or a drojky here to take him to Peterhof, or even to Sergi, with the understanding that all the sights between these places are to be visited. A carriage for the day will cost from 7 to 10 rubles. Travellers may, if they prefer it, proceed from Oranienbaum to Peterhof by rail, a distance of 6 m. The palace of Oranienbaum is well worth seeing. Built on a terrace, it commands a lovely and extensive view of Cronstadt and its fortifications, and of an immense expanse of water, studded with busy craft under sail and steam. It was built by Menschikoff in 1724, and confiscated on his attainder. Subsequently it became the favourite residence of Peter III., who surrounded himself there with his Holstein guard, and raised a mimic fortification, which is still to be seen. This imperial residence now belongs to the Grand Duchess Helen.

There is an excellent *buffet* at the Railway Station in Oranienbaum, where dinner or refreshments may be had.

Taking the high road to St. Petersburg, the tourist will pass numerous summer residences and a thriving German colony. The first château

beyond Oranienbaum is *Sergiefka*, the property of the Grand Duchess Marie Nicolaevna. The house is most beautifully situated in grounds very tastefully ornamented. Beyond this is *Sobstvennaya*, or "Mine Own," a most lovely miniature palace, built for the Emperor Alexander II. when heir apparent. Strangers are allowed to inspect it, and should not omit doing so. The several rooms are most tastefully and richly ornamented, and the garden behind, kept with the utmost care, affords a most charming prospect. The summer residence and the farm of Prince Peter of Oldenburg stand between this and Peterhof.

Peterhof.—The construction of this prettily-situated residence was commenced about 1720. The palace, situated on an elevation of 60 feet, was built by Leblond, under the directions of Peter the Great, and is one of the principal attractions of the place. Although every emperor and every empress has made alterations and additions, the character of the whole is the same as that of all the palaces built by Peter; even the yellow colour, which was its original hue, is always renewed, and its architecture, like that of the other palaces, is very insignificant in style.

Inside, however, are to be seen some beautiful tapestries, countless articles of virtù, tazzas of porcelain, malachite, and marble, and a number of pictures chiefly representing the naval victories of Orloff and other Russian generals of Catherine II. There is also one highly interesting apartment, containing a collection of 368 female portraits executed by a certain Count Rotari for that Empress during a journey which he made through the fifty provinces of Russia. They are all beautiful young girls, whom the count has painted in picturesque attitudes, and in their national costumes; and one cannot but admire the inventive genius of the artist in giving a different position and expression to so many faces. One pretty girl is knitting diligently, another embroidering; one peeps archly from behind a curtain, another gazes expectingly from a window; another leans over a chair, as if listening to her lover; a sixth, reclining on cushions, seems lost in thought. One slumbers softly and sweetly; this stands before a glass, combing her beautiful hair; that has buried herself up to the ears in fur, leaving visible only a pair of tender rosy lips, and soft blue eyes gleaming from under the wild bear's skin. There are also some excellent portraits of old people: two in particular — an old man with a staff, and an old woman by the fire. This collection is unique in its kind, and would be invaluable for a physiognomist, if he could be certain that these portraits were as exact and faithful as they are pleasing and tasteful. But this is doubtful, for they all bear, undeniably, rather the stamp of the French school than of the Russian, Tartar, Finnish, or any other nationality within the Russian empire. It is also a suspicious circumstance, that they were done by a gentleman for a lady; and probably behind every graceful attitude some flattering homage to the Empress lies concealed. The other apartments do not contain anything very remarkable. In one are the little table and benches with which the Emperors Alexander I. and Nicholas played as children; in another, some carving and turner's work of Peter the Great.

From the palace to the sea-shore, the garden is laid out in terraces adorned with fountains and waterfalls; the basins, the Neptunes, storks, swans, and nymphs, the tritons, dolphins, painted rocks, and grottoes, are copied from the engravings in Hushfield's 'Art of Gardening.'

The water-works are considered but little inferior to those at Versailles. The fountain called the Samson, in front of the palace, is a magnificent jet-d'eau, 80 feet high, and from it to the sea, a distance of 500 yards, runs a canal, wherein are many smaller fountains. On each side of the Samson so called from a colossal bronze figure tearing open the jaws of a lion from

whence the water rushes, are other jets-d'eau which throw water vertically and horizontally; these basins are at the foot of the elevation on which the palace stands. In the centre is a broad flight of steps leading to the palace, and on each side a continuous range of marble slabs to the top of the hill over which the water pours down, the slabs being placed high and far apart so as to allow lamps to be arranged behind the water. This is done at the Peterhof *fêtes*.

The smaller buildings of *Marly* and *Montplaisir*, in the garden below, remind the spectator of the modest domestic arrangements of the carpenter of Saardam, the great reformer of Eastern Europe.

It was from Marly that Peter the Great loved to contemplate his infant fleet, moored beneath the batteries of Cronstadt. In Montplaisir, a low Dutch-built summer-house, the Empress Elizabeth used to amuse her royal leisure by cooking her own dinner. In this lowly abode the great Peter breathed his last, and his bed is still preserved untouched since his death. It contains a small collection of pictures of the Flemish and Dutch schools of the 17th and beginning of the 18th centy., purchased by Peter the Great during his travels in Holland.

The *Hermitage* is chiefly remarkable for the contrivance by which the dishes and plates descend from the table through grooves cut in the floor, and are replaced by others without any servant being seen.

The famous *Cottage* of Catherine is, without, all plain, even to poverty; within, all glorious and radiant with gold, and mirrors reflecting each object, giving the tiny dwelling an appearance of size and magnificence quite astonishing.

There is also a low thatched building, called the *Straw Palace*. In a piece of water in the gardens are a great many tame carp, which are regularly fed, and come to the visitors as readily as the swans in St. James's Park.

The *English Park*, so called from its having been laid out by an English gardener, is on the right-hand side of the road coming from Oranienbaum. It contains an old building designed by Quarenghi, and called the English Palace, where subscription balls are given in autumn. Many ornamental cottages and pieces of water surround it. A pretty road leads through the park to a charming cottage belonging to the Emperor, and called *Babbigon*.

Adjoining the lower garden of the old palace of Peterhof is *Alexandria*, the private grounds of the Emperor, where he resides while at Peterhof. There are several imperial cottages within the grounds (to which visitors are only admitted by tickets issued by the governor of the town), and amongst them is the small house of the Emperor Nicholas I., from the roof of which, with a telescope still shown, he was wont to watch the movements of the Anglo-French squadron in front of Cronstadt. There are several beautiful views of the gulf to be obtained in these gardens. A little stream which flows through them sets in motion a miniature mill, constructed for the children of the Emperor Nicholas.

Visitors preferring to dine or take luncheon at Peterhof will find a good *hotel* close to the steamboat pier, on the shore of the gulf.

Passing out of the private grounds, the traveller should take the centre road, or that between the high road and the road along the coast. The first Imperial residence on the right is *Znamensky*, belonging to the Grand Duke Nicholas, and prettily situated on the top of a high embankment. His farm, called *Kreutz*, which the tourist should inspect, and where he should refresh himself with a draught of milk, is 1½ m. beyond.

Mihailofsky, the property of the Grand Duke Michael, is about 1½ m. further on. It is built in the Italian style, and is really a princely residence. If the traveller have a fancy for viewing palaces, no better opportunity could possibly occur than during

the drive here described. 2 m. beyond is

Strelna, a palace of the Grand Duke Constantine, 12 m. from St. Petersburg. It was originally built in 1711, and presented by Peter the Great to his daughter Elizabeth, by whom it was much neglected. In 1797 the Emperor Paul gave it to his eldest son Constantine, who resided there in summer, and considerably improved the grounds. It was almost entirely destroyed by fire in 1803, and was rebuilt by the Emperor Alexander I. The palace and grounds were bequeathed to General Alexandroff, from whose family they have since been repurchased. It is a pretty Gothic building, situated on a commanding position; but its interior is plain, and, with the exception of the ball-room, simply furnished. The gardens are laid out in the Dutch style. The marble bath was built for the consort of the Grand Duke Constantine Nicolaevitch.

A drive of about a mile will bring the traveller to *Sergi*, or the monastery of St. Sergius, which will well repay a visit. The monastery of Troitskaia-Sergieva was founded in 1734 on the site of a farm which belonged to the daughter of John, brother of Peter the Great. Her sister, the Empress Anne, bestowed the grounds on Warlaam, the superior of the Troitsa Monastery, near Moscow, by whom the first church and cells were built. Until 1764 this monastery continued to be attached to the Troitsa. The principal church stands at the back of the grounds, on the edge of an elevation which overlooks the estuary of the Neva, and is certainly one of the prettiest in Russia. Its open roof and its stalls of oak give it an air of elegance and comfort that few Russo-Greek churches possess. It bears some resemblance to Merton College Chapel at Oxford. The granite monoliths were quarried on the spot. Below are numerous mortuary chapels, open to visitors. These are the sepulchral vaults of many great families. They are full of tokens that the dead are not forgotten by the living. In one chapel the visitor will see, over the tombs of two little boys and their mother, a picture almost the size of life, and painted from actual portraits, representing the mother bringing her children to the Saviour, who receives them, saying, "Suffer little children to come unto me." The monuments in the churchyard are very rich and handsome. On some, small lamps are kept perpetually burning, as if to indicate that Hope was not to be extinguished by Death. Great crowds resort to this monastery on Sundays, and wander among the gravestones. The singing in this monastery is very fine, particularly at vespers on Saturdays, between the hours of 7 and 9. Several great Russian families have erected handsome mausoleums, which may be inspected on application to the obliging Archimandrite, who continues to spend his private fortune in embellishing the monastery.

From here the traveller is recommended to rejoin the railway, about 1 m. to the rt. of the road. He may refresh himself at a celebrated *restaurant* called *Auguste's*, which stands almost at the corner of the road that leads to the railway station. A run of half an hour will bring the tourist to the station at St. Petersburg, where he will find numerous drojkies in waiting.

Sometimes a carriage may be procured at Sergi, and a tourist so inclined may continue his journey to St. Petersburg by the high road (20 v.), passing many pretty villas, once tenanted by the nobility of Russia, but abandoned by them since the Court commenced to reside for longer periods at Tsarskoé Sélo.

Twelve versts before reaching St. Petersburg a lunatic asylum will be passed. It may be inspected at any time on application to the medical superintendent, who speaks English. It is one of the best establishments of the kind in Europe, the system pursued being only partly coercive for the more refractory patients.

The average annual number of in-

mates is 400. The principal form of malady is dementia, the cases of melancholy being about 14 per cent. less than of the former, represented by 33 per cent. of the total number. The cases of mania between 1859–1863 were 13 per cent., and imbecility 15 per cent. The number of cures performed between the above years was 9½ per cent. of the whole. Mechanical restraint was used in 5·56 per cent. of cases, principally in those of females.

The capital will be approached through the *Triumphal Arch of Narva*, so called after the road which passes through it, and which leads to Narva and the Baltic provinces. This fine gate commemorates the return of the Russian troops in 1815. It is formed by very high columns of metal supporting the arch, which is surmounted by a triumphal car drawn by six horses, and conducted by victory holding the trophies of glory and of combats. Below, between the two columns, are warriors wearing Slavonian armour, and waiting to receive their laurel wreaths. The inscription above, in Latin and Russian, is: "Grateful Russia to its victorious legions."

The other triumphal arch of St. Petersburg has been described under "Drives."

2. To camp at *Krasnoé Sélo* by Peterhof line of rail in ¾ of an hour.—The Guards go under canvas during the summer months, and the great bulk of them are generally encamped at Krasnoé Sélo. The emperor reviews them about the end of August, when they engage in mimic warfare, and attack and defend neighbouring positions. The exercises of the troops, and perhaps their gymnastics, will be of interest to the military traveller, who should come provided with a uniform, which will secure the kindest attention on the part of the officers of the staff, including quarters and a good mount. Forty to fifty thousand troops are manœuvred here.

3. *Tsarskoé Sélo and Pavlofsk.*—This royal residence and favourite resort of the Imperial family is distant about 15 m. from St. Petersburg.

The best and most rapid mode of proceeding to Tsarskoé is by the railroad, the first laid down in Russia, but it may be reached by road, taking Pulkova Observatory on the way (*vide* Excursion 4). The train will land the traveller at a little distance from the palace, but drojkies, or, in winter, sledges, are in readiness at the station to carry the passengers on. At the entrance to the grounds of the palace are two small towers carved with Egyptian figures and hieroglyphics taken from the classical work of Denon on that country.

The façade of *the Palace*, built in 1744, but embellished by Catherine II., is 780 ft. in length; originally every statue, pedestal, and capital of the numerous columns, the vases, carvings and other ornaments in front, were covered with gold-leaf, and the gold used for that purpose amounted to more than a million of ducats. In a few years the gildings wore off, and the contractors engaged in repairing it offered the Empress nearly half a million of silver roubles for the fragments of gold-leaf; but Catherine refused, saying, "Je ne suis pas dans l'usage de vendre mes vieilles hardes."

The only gilding which now remains is on the dome and cupolas of the ch. The front of the palace, towards the gardens, is stained green, white, and yellow. The first portion of the building generally shown is the chapel, a spacious room, fitted up entirely with dark-coloured wood, most lavishly gilded, even the ceiling being one bright sheet of gold; on the walls are some curious old paintings. A key of the city of Adrianople hangs beside the altar. The royal family have a kind of gallery in the chapel, communicating with their various apartments in the palace, and situated immediately opposite the screen or Ikonostas.

The walls and floors of the palace are exceedingly richly decorated: the former are either simple white and gold, or hung with rich silks; the

latter parquetted in the most graceful designs and tender colours, and still as fresh as when first laid down. One of the most elegant rooms is that called the Lapis-lazuli, ornamented with encrustations of that stone. The floor of this apartment is of ebony inlaid with large flowers of mother-of-pearl, forming one of the most splendid contrasts possible. The room itself is not very large, but the effect is beautiful. Catherine has been frequently accused of Vandalism in having the pictures in this room cut so as to fit the walls. The wall is certainly covered with pictures without frames, forming a complete lining, but their proportions have not been curtailed. The wonder of this palace is the famous Amber Room, the walls of which are literally panelled with that material in various architectural designs, the arms of Frederick the Great, by whom the amber was presented to Catherine II., being moulded in different compartments with the imperial cipher, the Russian E for Ekaterina. Accustomed to see only small pieces of this beautiful substance, one can hardly believe that the large rough fragments projecting from the walls are really amber; they are of a pale yellow, and in several places form groups of figures with frames composed of larger portions.

The bed-chamber of Catherine is adorned with walls of porcelain and pillars of purple glass.

In the banqueting-room the entire walls to the height of about 9 ft. are covered with gold, with which the ceilings of almost all the state apartments are lavishly covered. The Chinese room is remarkable for the taste with which everything is arranged after the fantastic fashion of the Celestial Empire. Two grand ball-rooms are also conspicuous, the upper end of each being occupied by a collection of the most splendid china vases placed on circular tiers up to the ceiling, and marked with the Imperial E. The whole palace, in fact, breathes recollections of the great Catherine; and here are to be seen her private apartments, and the gentle descent leading into the garden by which she was wheeled up and down, when infirmity had deprived her of the use of her limbs.

The apartments of Alexander I. have been kept exactly as he left them when he started for Taganrog. His study was a small light room with scagliola walls. Beyond this was his simple bed-room with a slight camp bedstead in an alcove. On one side is a small table with a little green morocco looking-glass, his simple English shaving apparatus, his brushes, combs, and a pocket-handkerchief marked Z. 23.

The *Alexander Palace* was built by Catherine for her grandson Alexander I. It is of a simple, yet lofty style. The only objects on the plain walls of the great drawing-room are a small print of Admiral Sir Edward Codrington, and the busts of seven Imperial children in infantine beauty. The Emperor's own room, in point of heavy writing-tables and bureaux, is that of a man of business, but the military tastes of Nicholas are apparent in the glass cases containing models of the different cavalry regiments, executed, man and horse, with the greatest beauty and accuracy. Paintings of military manœuvres and stiff squares of soldiers are also dispersed through the apartments.

The Arsenal, a recent red brick erection in English Gothic, is a most picturesque object in the noble gardens of the palace. For several generations the Russian sovereigns have amassed a collection of armour and curious antique instruments. These were increased in the reign of the Emperor Nicholas, who erected this building purposely for their reception, and intrusted their classification and arrangement to an Englishman.

It would be impossible to enumerate the objects here preserved, consisting chiefly of ancient armour, weapons, and accoutrements of every description, for man and horse, from every warlike nation, both Christian and Pagan. Figures in armour guard the

entrance and lead the eye along the winding staircase, whence a lofty circular vaulted hall is entered, with oak flooring, and walls hung round with carbines, lances, &c., in fanciful devices, and where, placed on high pedestals in a circle round the room, are 8 equestrian figures in full accoutrements and as large as life, like the kings in the Tower of London. Between these the visitor passes on to various little alcoves or oratories with groined ceiling and stained window, whose light falls on the gorgeously wrought silver cross or precious missal of some early pope, or on the diamond-and-pearl-woven trappings of Turkish luxury; or on the hunting-horn, with ivory handle of exquisitely carved figures, of some doughty German Markgraf of the olden time; or on the jousting instruments and other playthings of the Amazons of Catherine II.'s court.

In a glass case in the arsenal are preserved the small silver drum and trumpet given by Catherine to the Emperor Paul in his childhood, and beside them is the autograph letter of Bessières to Davoust, Governor of Moscow, ordering him to evacuate the city.

In a recess are placed 2 sets of horse-trappings presented by the Sultan to the Emperor—the first on concluding the peace of Adrianople, when the "yellow-haired Giaours" passed victoriously the mountain barrier of the Balkan, and were well nigh at the gates of his capital. This saddle is superb, with its trappings of purple velvet studded with diamonds, and its stirrups of gold; but the other makes its glories dim when seen together. This was given when the Porte sued as a suppliant to Russia for an auxiliary force to defend a tottering throne against a rebellious vassal, after the fatal field of Konieh had witnessed the overthrow of the only army the Sultan possessed. The diamonds on the pistol holsters of this saddle are of unusual size, and their brightness perfectly dazzling, while every part of the saddle and bridle is actually covered with brilliants. Several swords, studded with diamonds, are also preserved here; for the most part presents from various sovereigns to the present Emperor.

But this arsenal would require a volume to itself, and offers inexhaustible interest to the artist in mind, and a very treasury of beautiful subjects to the artist in profession. They are minutely described in a French catalogue which may be purchased at the door. Visitors should ask to see the Polish standards, weapons, and uniforms, taken in the insurrection of 1863, which are kept in an upper chamber of the Arsenal.

The grounds around the palace are 18 m. in circumference, and contain plenty of larch, oak, and elm, which seem to flourish; the gardens are certainly the most carefully kept in the world; the trees and flowers are watched and inspected with the most anxious minuteness.

The odd caprices exhibited in the decoration of the grounds are really extraordinary, and so numerous that it would be difficult to enumerate them all. In one corner is the tower of an ornamental building of several stories, where Alexander II. resided with his tutor, when heir apparent; in another are the baby-houses of the young Grand Duchesses, where they carried on a mimic *ménage*. In front of a Chinese tower is a high pole, rigged like the mast of a frigate. On one of the ponds is a fleet of pigmy vessels, intended to amuse the Grand Duke Constantine, now High Admiral, in his professional studies. In addition to all these strange objects are a theatre, a Chinese village, a Dutch and Swiss cow-house, a Turkish kiosk, a summer-house in the form of an Ionic colonnade supporting an aërial garden, planted with flowers, a Gothic building called the Admiralty, a marble bridge with Corinthian columns of polished marble, also rostral pillars and bronze statues, which Catherine erected to her favourites; amongst these is a column to Orloff. There are likewise some commemorative monuments raised by Alexander I. to his "companions in arms," intermingled with fields of roses, hermit-

ages, artificial ruins, Roman tombs, grottoes, and waterfalls.

One of the prettiest spots in the gardens is a *Pavilion* at the end of a small lake where the Grand Duchess Alexandrina, the amiable daughter of Nicholas, used to feed her swans, replaced since her premature death by black ones. Her picture hangs there with one of her sayings under it: "Je sais, papa, que vous n'avez pas de plus grand plaisir que d'en faire à maman." Her full-length marble figure, with a child in her arms, stands in an alcove, surrounded by a handsome railing. The celebrated *Statue of our Saviour* by Danneker is shown in the artificial ruin of a castle in the park.

From Tsarskoé the traveller is recommended to drive to *Pavlofsk*, 3 m. beyond, in the carriage which conveyed him to the several sights; returning to St. Petersburg by rail. Pavlofsk was built in 1780 and restored in 1803. The gardens are very extensive and well laid out over the most picturesque accidents of country. They are full of châlets, pavilions, temples, and mortuary chapels. The palace is of very simple architecture, and belongs to the Grand Duke Constantine. A short walk in the grounds will afford all the pleasure and information that are to be derived from a visit, not forgetting, of course, the excellent orchestra which plays daily at the Rly. Stat. or Vauxhall, where tourists may dine or take tea after their long excursion.

4.—*Pulkova Observatory.*—This excursion may be made by road from St. Petersburg (20 v.), or by taking the train by the Tsarskoé Sélo or the Warsaw line to Tsarskoé Sélo, and driving thence to the Observatory, which is open to visitors on Mondays, Thursdays, and Saturdays from 11 A.M. to 2 P.M. Admission in the evening only by express permission of the Director.

The Imperial Observatory of Pulkova was founded in 1838, by the Emperor Nicholas, on a scale of great magnificence. The splendid instruments which it contains were purchased from the best makers in Europe for about 38,000*l.*, while the cost of construction exceeded 300,000*l.* It stands on a considerable eminence, isolated from other buildings within a circumference of about a mile. Since its foundation the Observatory has made many important contributions to the science of Astronomy; the name of Struve, father and son, Directors of the Observatory, are too well known in Europe to need any comment here. Struve's measurement of the arc of the meridian between the Danube and the Polar Sea was one of the greatest achievements of astronomical science. Another measurement, equally well known, was made subsequently between Valencia in Ireland and Orsk in Siberia, comprising 52 degrees of latitude.

All these works were executed by officers of the Imperial Etat Major and by the corps of Topographers educated at St. Petersburg. Within the last 25 years the learned Directors of the Observatory and their coadjutors have published nearly 200 works on Astronomy and Geodesy. The State contributes a sum of about 5000*l.* for the support of the establishment.

5. For excursion to *Gatchina* Palace, see route from Frontier to St. Petersburg.

6. *To Schlüsselburg and Lake Ladoga.*—Small steamers leave several times a day from a stage opposite the Summer Garden, for Schlüsselburg, at the mouth of the Neva, in Lake Ladoga, a distance of 40 m., which is made in 4 to 5 hours. This trip affords an opportunity of viewing the extensive manufactories, works, and building-slips, established on the banks of the river, most of which are under the management of English mechanics. At a place called *Alexandrofski* is a large steam factory. The works are surrounded by a very large village, composed of the dwellings of the artizans and their masters. About 1 m. further on are the *Imperial Porcelain Works* where the ceramic art has been fostered since the days of Catherine II. A great perfection has been attained

here in the manufacture and ornamentation of china. Some splendid vases are exhibited, and many exquisitely modelled figures of *biscuit*. An excursion to these works alone might be profitably undertaken. The long line of cottages beyond are occupied by a population engaged in the manufacture of porcelain, which is all stamped in blue with the Russian initial of the reigning sovereign, surmonnted by an Imperial Crown. The *Alexandrofski Manufactory*, higher up the river, was once a thriving place, under the superintendence of our countryman, General Wilson, where numerous English cotton-spinners, weavers, and other mechanics obtained lucrative employment. The Government have now abandoned the manufacture of cotton and linen fabrics, and the principal buildings are occupied by a Russian Iron-works Company. Higher up, after passing the large German colony of *Saratof*, the banks of the river become prettily wooded. Many country seats, once of great splendour, occur at intervals. The picturesque ruins of an old castle, called *Pella*, will be seen at the rapids of the Neva, 17 m. from St. Petersburg.

Schlüsselburg is a fortress on an island at the source of the Neva. It belonged anciently to Novgorod the Great. In 1324 George, Prince of Moscow and Novgorod, raised a fort on it during an expedition against Wyborg, and a trade with Revel soon sprang up. The Lithuanians then took it, but were driven out by Magnus King of Sweden, A.D. 1347. The Novgorodians retook it in 1352, and raised a stone wall round the island. From that date to its final occupation by Peter the Great in 1702, Schlüsselburg, or, as it was called by the Swedes, Näteborg, remained a fruitful subject of contention between the two countries. The fortress has often served as a state prison. John VI. met with his death in it. The town of Schlüsselburg, on the left bank of the Neva, has 4000 Inhab., engaged in navigating the Ladoga Lake and the famous canal which forms part of the fluviatile stem connecting the Baltic with the Caspian. Tourists should inspect the locks, and after strolling a little in the country return to St. Petersburg by the boat that brought them, and which will take them down the rapid current of the Neva in less than 2 hours. (For description of country beyond Lake Ladoga, *vide* Rte. 3).

7. The *Monastery of Walaam*, on Lake Ladoga, should also be visited if the traveller have sufficient time, particularly between the 27th and 30th June O.S., when an annual fair is held there. Steamers ply regularly.

This monastery is reputed to have been founded between A.D. 973 and 980, before the introduction of Christianity into Russia, but it is disputed whether the 2 Greek monks who lie buried at Walaam, Sergius and Germanicus, flourished in the 10th or in the 14th centy. In the 12th centy., and in 1577 and 1610, the place suffered much from the inroads of the Swedes, who crossed over from Serdobol, on the mainland of Finland, 40 v. distant, where an excellent dark granite is now quarried. The monastery was destroyed by fire in 1754, and restored to its present condition in 1785. There are 5 chs. within it, and in one of these (the Cath.) lie the remains of the two Greek monks in handsome shrines of silver.

The situation of the monastery is very picturesque, and the island on which it stands is divided by a pretty rivulet. The traveller will visit with interest the many cells and subterranean caverns in which the more pious monks pass their lives in great austerity.

In 1819 the Emperor Alexander passed two days in prayer and fasting at this monastery.

Tolerable accommodation will be found, although, by the exercise of a small amount of interest, the traveller will probably be able to induce the captain of the steamer to allow him to pass a night on board, which will be found preferable.

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ROUTE 2.

LONDON TO ST. PETERSBURG, BY SEA, VIA CRONSTADT.

This route is cheaper than the overland journey. Steamers ply constantly to Cronstadt and St. Petersburg from London, Hull, and Leith.

The London steamers charge about 6*l.*, exclusive of provisions (about 6*s.* per day), and make the voyage generally in 6 or 7 days.

The most popular Hull boat is the *Emperor* paddle-steamer. Fares: 1st cabin, 5*l.* 5*s.*; second cabin, 3*l.* 3*s.* Provisions 6*s.* a day. Voyages performed in 5 or 6 days.

Steamers leave Leith fortnightly for St. Petersburg. Fare 6*l.* Provisions, 6*s.* a day. Voyage 5 to 6 days.

All these steamers stop at Copenhagen. Some of them proceed direct to St. Petersburg; others stop at Cronstadt, and forward their passengers by river boat or by rail *viâ* Oranienbaum. Travellers wishing to avoid the land journey from Berlin may embark at Lubeck or Stettin for St. Petersburg, which may also be reached by way of Riga, Stockholm, and Finland, for which see Rte. 4, and "Finland." The best months for the Baltic are June, July, and August.

(For description of Cronstadt *vide* Rte. 1.)

ROUTE 3.

LONDON TO ST. PETERSBURG, VIÂ ARCHANGEL.

Steamers loading for Archangel, and having accommodation for passengers, may be found in London and in the North between the months of May and August. An earlier or later voyage should alike be avoided. The usual fare is 6*l.* first class, and a charge of 6*s.* to 7*s.* per diem for provisions during a voyage that lasts 7 or 8 days under favourable circumstances.

This route should not be undertaken except by those who are prepared to brave the difficulty and discomfort of posting 750 miles, the distance between Archangel and St. Petersburg. Its choice can only be justified by a desire to cross the White Sea, or to visit the interesting monastery of Solovetsk, situated on an island about 150 miles from Archangel, a town which, however, possesses a certain amount of interest to the British traveller from its having been the "cradle" of the trade between Great Britain and Russia. (For description of Early Intercourse with Russia at Archangel, *vide* Rte. 1—"Russia Company.")

ARCHANGEL.

Hotels.—There are no hotels properly so called at Archangel, but accommodation will be found in the ordinary hostelries of the country, described under "Posting."

History of Archangel.—Pop. 20,000. Lat. 64° 33′ N. 1104 versts from St. Petersburg, and 1206 versts N. of Moscow, on right bank of Northern Dvina.

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The history of the town is traced back to the 12th centy., when John, Archbishop of Novgorod the Great, founded a monastery on the coast of the White Sea. In 1419 the Northmen made a descent on that part of the coast, destroyed the churches which belonged to the monasteries of St. Nicholas and St. Michael, then already existing, and put to death the monks. It was at the former monastery that Sir Richard Chancellor landed in 1553, as related in the history of the early intercourse of Great Britain with Russia. A wall was subsequently built round the monastery of St. Michael, and in 1584 the town which had sprung up within the enclosure began to be officially named New Holmogory. In 1637 the town and the monastery were destroyed by fire, when the monks removed their shrines to a place then called Niachery, where they still remain. A church, dedicated to the Archangel Michael, marks the spot where the old monastery stood. Fires devastated the town in 1637, 1667, and 1678. In the latter year two foreign "builders of towns," Peter Marselin and William Scharf, built a new fortress or wall of stone, which was divided into three parts. The upper part being called the "Russian," and the lower the "German" (or foreign) enclosure. Peter the Great visited Archangel in 1693, and founded a naval wharf on the island of Solombola, connected with Archangel by a floating bridge, and which he peopled with seamen and artizans, while on a neighbouring island, called after Moses, he built a summer residence, which can still be seen. In 1701 Peter founded the fortress of Novodvinsk, 18 v. from Archangel, on the Berezof branch of the Dvina. The town was again burnt down seven times between the years 1724 and 1793. Ruins of the old stone wall are alone to be found, but the "Russian court," or enclosure, is partly extant. The custom-house and harbour-master's offices are contained within it. Two walls, very much crumbled, mark the limits of the old enclosure for foreigners. Archangel was made the seat of provincial government in 1702, the voevodes or governors having previously resided at Holmogory, now a district town, 71 v. from Archangel, and celebrated for its fine cattle.

On the principal square are the cathedral, the churches of the Archangel and of the Resurrection, the courts of law, &c.; and a monument to Lomonosof, the poet fisherman of Archangel, erected in 1838. On this square formerly stood the houses of the early English merchants. The Archiepiscopal Palace, built in 1784, is one of the oldest houses in Archangel. Travellers may visit the old monastery, from which the town takes its name, and which was removed to its present site, 2½ v. from Archangel, in 1637. It contains 2 stone chs., of which one was built in 1685 and the other in 1705.

The port is visited annually by about 800 vessels, of which nearly 200 are British. Oats and other grain, flax, linseed, tar, timber, and blubber are largely exported (value about one million sterling); but the import trade is very limited.

An English ch. and a chapel-of-ease, where divine service is performed during the months of summer, are still maintained for the benefit of the shipping and of the English community, now reduced to very few members. A British consul likewise resides at Archangel.

1. *Excursion to Solovetsk Monastery.*

A steamer proceeds twice a week to the monastery of Solovetsk, one of the holiest places in Russia, founded in 1429 by Saint Sabbatheus, assisted by Germanicus and Zosimus, two holy monks. Zosimus having been made abbot in 1442, the monastery began to grow in wealth and power. The Archbishop and Possadnik (governor) of Novgorod made large grants of land, while the inhabitants of that ancient city presented the monastery with gold and silver plate and rich vest-

ments. In 1465 the relics of Sabbatheus were removed from their place of sepulchre at the mouth of the river Vyga, and deposited in the Cathedral of the Transfiguration, where St. Zosimus was subsequently also buried. In 1485 and 1538 the monastery and its churches were destroyed by fire; but in 1552 the then Abbot Philip (afterwards Metropolitan of Moscow) began to rebuild the churches in stone. During the reign of Theodore, between 1590 and 1594, the monks built at their own expense a wall of granite boulders, with towers and embrasures, 3 to 4 fms. high and 3 fms. in thickness, and running along a length of 421 fms. In 1667 the monks refused to receive the new books sent by the Patriarch Nicon (*vide* description of the "New Jerusalem"), and broke out into open rebellion after ejecting their Archimandrite, Joseph, and refusing to listen to the envoy of the Tsar, the Archimandrite Sergius of Jaroslaf. But the leaders of the disaffected monks, having been carried away to Moscow, the remainder of the brethren flew to arms, and shut themselves up within their walls. The rebellion lasted nine years. After many ineffectual attacks by the Streltzi, the Voévode, Prince John Mestcherski, besieged the monastery for the space of two years, and it only fell by the treachery of one of the monks, who disclosed to the enemy a subterranean passage on the 22nd January, 1676, when many of the rebellious monks were put to the sword. A large number of them were either executed later or sent into exile. The remainder were kept in awe and submission during a whole year by 300 Streltzi, under the command of Prince Vladimir Volkonsky.

In the 16th and 17th cents. the Solovetsk monastery was the place of banishment or retirement of many celebrated men. Sylvester, the monk, who exercised such a beneficial influence over the earlier days of John the Terrible, lies buried there, together with Abraham Palytsin, the patriotic monk who roused the people to action during the Polish occupation of Moscow. Nicon, subsequently the famous patriarch, took the cowl at Solovetsk. Simon Bekbulatovitch, the deposed Tsar of Kasan, and subsequently the friend of his conqueror, John the Terrible, was sent here in disgrace by the false Demetrius, and forced to become a monk, *circa* A.D. 1609. He was removed in 1811 to the monastery of St. Cyril-Belóozersk, in the province of Novgorod. Peter the Great visited Solovetsk in 1694 and 1702, on the last occasion accompanied by his ill-fated son Alexis. A chapel now stands over the spot where he landed, while within the gates will be seen the models of the two vessels in which Peter crossed over. One of these was a yacht that had been built in England.

The monks will point with pride to the unexploded shells which were fired from the British White Sea squadron in 1855. They were summoned to surrender to the "squadron of horse," as the interpreter incorrectly put it to them; but they refused, and their only gun having burst and killed their only artilleryman, the holy fathers formed themselves in procession, and walked round the walls, preceded by the cross, while the shells were flying over their heads. An obelisk, next the 2 chapels, commemorates these proceedings.

Churches.—This celebrated fortress-monastery now contains 6 chs.—1. The Cathedral of the Transfiguration, built of wood in 1438 by Zosimus, but rebuilt of stone by St. Philip in 1558, and consecrated 1566. It has 5 altars, erected contemporaneously, dedicated as follows:—*a*, to the Archangel Michael; *b*, to Saints Zosimus and Sabbatheus, whose relics are there preserved in shrines of silver-gilt, of which the covers, weighing 180 lbs. avoird. were made at Amsterdam in 1660, at the expense of the Boyar Boris Morosoff; *c*, to the 70 Apostles; *d*, to the 12 Apostles; *e*, to Theodore Stratilatus; and *f*, to St. John of the Ladder. The body of St. Philip

Metropolitan of Moscow, having been removed from the Otrotch monastery near Tver, where the exiled metropolitan had been put to death by order of John the Terrible, was originally buried under the porch of the Cathedral of the Transfiguration, but in 1652 they were removed to the Cathedral of the Assumption at Moscow. A part of the relics of the saint were, however, left in the monastery, where they lie in the shrine which was made for them in 1646. The Ikonostas was put up in 1697, by order of Peter the Great, as seen from an inscription above it. Near the cathedral are two chapels, built in 1753, and containing the tombs of Germanicus and of other reverend fathers of local repute. 2. The Cathedral of the Assumption, built of stone, together with a refectory by St. Philip, in 1552, and consecrated by him in 1557; in the upper part of this church are two altars which were restored after a fire that occurred in 1717. 3. The Church of Nicholas Thormaturgus, built of stone, and consecrated about 1590. 4. The Church of the Annunciation, founded 1596, consecrated 1601, and restored after a fire in 1745. 5. The Church of the Metropolitan Philip, built 1687, renovated 1798. And 6. A church outside the wall of the monastery, in the cemetery, and dedicated to Onuphrius the Great; consecrated 1667; the belfry, constructed in 1777, is of a height of 20 fms.

The Sacristy is one of the richest in Russia, being full of valuable gifts made by various sovereigns and nobles. Among other objects of great price are the vestments, covered with pearls of unusual size, given in 1550 by John IV. (Terrible), and a gold cross with relics, adorned with pearls and precious stones, the gift of the same Tsar in 1558; a silver shrine, weighing 25 lbs., made in 1766; another shrine, presented by the Grand Duke Constantine in 1845, and a large copy of the Evangelists, weighing about 18 lbs., in a binding of silver-gilt. The following other treasures will be viewed with interest:—1. The white linen chasuble of Zosimus, presented to him by Archbishop Jonas of Novgorod, and in which St. Philip had said mass; this venerable garment is still worn on great occasions by the Archimandrite of the monastery; 2. The Psalter of Zosimus, mended by St. Philip, and an image of the Holy Virgin, brought to Solovetsk island by Sabbatheus; 3. The armour of the followers of Abraham Palytsin, who, though a monk, was one of the most active agents in the war that terminated in the expulsion of the Poles from Moscow in 1613; 4. The swords of Prince Michael Skopin-Shuiski, and of Prince Pojarski, presented by himself, and preserved in a scabbard of silver-gilt, and studded with precious stones—(for the history of those princes, *vide* Historical Notice); 5. Many original charters of the Veché (or Wittenegamote) of Novgorod and of Martha the Possadnitsa, or elected governor of that republic, granting lands to the monastery; and 6. A large collection of ancient Russian and other weapons, and of banners bearing the emblem of the cross.

Very tolerable accommodation will be found at the monastery, and the traveller who comes provided with an introduction to the archimandrite, easily obtained through the British residents at Archangel, will find a stay of two days at Solovetsk Monastery both pleasant and instructive.

2. *Excursion to Kem.*

A tourist who will go as far as Solovetsk may as well proceed by the steamer which leaves the monastery once a week for Kem, an interesting settlement of the Staroveri or Old-Believer sect, who pursue the avocation of fishermen, and to whom indeed the greater part of the fishing stations and vessels in the White Sea belong.

KEM.—Lat. 64° 56′ N. Pop. 1750. Distant 280 v. by sea and 521 v. by land from Archangel.

This town is very prettily situated

on the river Kem, which falls into the White Sea on its W. shore. In the 15th centy. it belonged to Martha, the "Possadnitsa" of Novgorod, who in 1450 made a gift of it to the Solovetsk monastery. The Finns took it in 1580, when the Voevode of Solovetsk and many Streltsi were killed. In 1590 the Swedes took possession of the entire district. A wooden fortress, erected in 1657 by the monks on Lep island at the mouth of the Kem, was destroyed by inundations that occurred in 1749 and 1763.

The inhabitants are almost exclusively occupied in summer in the herring and cod fisheries, the women alone remaining in possession of the town. During the long absence of their husbands, however, they frequently make pilgrimages to the shrines of Solovetsk. As the inhabitants of the Kem district principally consist of *Carels* and *Lopars* the traveller will have an excellent opportunity of studying the characteristics of those northern races; and the excursion might be made still more interesting by returning *viâ* Onega, and ascending the Onega river to Kargopol, instead of posting to the latter town from Archangel.

3. *Excursion from Kem to Onega.*

Should the steamer not touch at Onega on her return from Kem, the traveller can proceed by the high road to Archangel, the distance between Kem and Onega being 289 v., and that to Archangel from Onega 232 v. more.

Onega is a place of some trade particularly in timber. An English company has for many years had a concession for cutting and exporting timber from this district. The company has 3 saw-mills—2 on the river Ponga and one on the Anda, tributaries of the Onega, which is a very fine and broad stream, 400 v. in length from Kargopol, in the vicinity of which town it takes its rise.

The town is supposed to have been founded in the 15th centy., but its existence can only be authentically traced back to the end of the 17th centy. It has a Pop. of 2000, and 2 chs. Here the traveller will be able to get advice and assistance from the agents of the English Timber Company, who will gladly put him on his way up the Onega river, the rapids of which, combined with very fine scenery, are well worthy of being visited.

It is almost needless to say that game of every kind abounds throughout this part of the country, but the proper time for killing it is of course the winter, when only the most enthusiastic sportsman would venture to carry his gun so far and to such a climate.

Journey to St. Petersburg.

Having provided himself with a *Podorojna*, and attended strictly to all the injunctions of his countrymen at Archangel, who will most willingly give him every assistance in their power, the traveller bent on posting to St. Petersburg must resign himself to the jolting of a tarantass and the rapid driving of a yamstchik. A considerable part of the bad road (or 150 v.) may, however, be avoided by taking advantage of a steamer which runs regularly up the Dvina to Siya, the 7th post station from Archangel.

Thirteen stations beyond Siya, or 445 v. from Archangel, is the town of

Kargopol, where the traveller will rest.

As regards *Hotels*, the general rule in Russia applies:—There are none at Kargopol; but the traveller will find a night's lodging at the post station.

History of the Town. Situated in Lat. 61′ 30″ N., in province of Olonetz, on left bank of Onega River. Pop. 2000.

Kargopol is one of the most ancient colonies in the N. of Russia, but the first authentic mention of the town occurs in 1447, when Prince Dmitry

Shemiaka and Prince John Mojaisky, sought refuge in it from the persecution of the Tsar, Basil the Dark. From a charter, dated 1536, it appears that Kargopol was at that time a place of considerable traffic, and possessed of a privilege for trading in salt. In 1565, John the Terrible ordered the supplies for his household to be drawn from Kargopol, and he left the town by will to his son John. The Lithuanians and Poles set fire to the outskirts in 1612, after three ineffectual attempts to take the town by assault, and it was again besieged for a considerable time by Cossacks and lawless bands from the Volga. As a place of banishment, Kargopol received in 1538 the Lady Agrippina Cheliadnina, the governess of the young Tsar John IV. At the instance of the Shuiski faction she was here made to take the veil. Solomonia, the consort of the Grand Duke Basil of Moscow, father of John the Terrible, was imprisoned at Kargopol on account of her barrenness, in 1525. In the reign of the Tsar Theodore, Prince Anthony Shuiski was put to death here, A.D. 1587. The wall of the old fortress in which these state prisoners were confined is still partly visible, together with the remains of the moat, on the banks of the river Onega. There are 19 chs. within the town, and a convent (the Uspenski or the Assumption); but there is nothing within them of any great note.

The inhabitants of Kargopol are principally occupied in the dressing of skins, of which about 2 millions are annually sent to Nijni-Novgorod and St. Petersburg. A market is held every Sunday, in summer, when the country people come in with their produce.

Continuation of Journey. Ten stations beyond is

VYTEGRA, district town in prov. of Olonetz, 668 v. from Archangel, Lat. 61°. Pop. 2500.

This town is prettily situated on both banks of a navigable river bearing the same name. Until the reign of Peter the Great it was only a station or wharf for vessels laden with grain, &c., but the Vytegra river having later become part of the "canal system" that unites the White Sea with the Baltic, it was raised from the rank of a village to that of a town. Vytegra has therefore no historical interest, but to the geologist the rugged banks of the river will offer many attractions, being composed of red sandstone of the Devonian formation, full of fossil remains, particularly of fishes. In the limestone near Deviatinski will be found fossils of *Chaeteles radians*, *Leptæna hardrensis*, *Cidaris rossicus*, *Natica Mariæ*, &c., while in the sandstone specimens of the *Stigmaria ficoides* abound.

Travellers are recommended to terminate their land journey at Vytegra, by crossing over in a boat to Vosnesenié, on the opposite side of the lake of Onega (about 50 v.), and thence taking steam to Lake Ladoga, which will be reached by means of the river Svir.

Excursion to Petrozavodsk.

After arriving at Vosnesenié the more enterprising tourist will endeavour to reach Petrozavodsk, on the western shore of Lake Onega, which is 220 v. in length and about 75 in breadth. Steamers run regularly twice a week between St. Petersburg and Petrozavodsk, touching at Vosnesenié. The entire voyage is made in 2 days.

PETROZAVODSK. — This town was founded by Peter the Great, with the view of developing the mineral resources of that part of his empire. The province of Olonetz is rich in copper, iron, and mica, which were worked in the earliest ages. It was anciently called Corelia; and its inhabitants, the Corels, embraced Christianity at the beginning of the 13th centy. Corelia was annexed to the republic of Novgorod, which granted permission to Dutch and other merchants to cut wood and raise iron and mica in the vicinity of the lake. Later

the Swedes and Lithuanians made frequent incursions.

The town of Petrozavodsk dates from 1701, when Peter the Great established there works for casting cannon, but which were afterwards destroyed, and replaced by other works completed in 1774. Guns continued, nevertheless, to be imported into Russia at great expense from the Carron Works in Scotland, owing probably to the unsatisfactory state of the establishment on Lake Onega. In order to improve the latter, Catherine II. invited Charles Gascoigne, the manager of the Carron Works, to come over and rebuild the gun-foundry, which he did in 1794, when the town that had sprung up around it took the name of Petrozavodsk. Gascoigne was accompanied by two English artizans, George Clarke and James Wilson, who subsequently rose to great eminence in the service of Russia. Guns for the navy are to this day cast at Petrozavodsk.

Continuation of Journey.

Returning in the steamer to Vosnesenié the traveller, who does not wish to go overland from Vytegra, will continue his voyage down the river Svir, which connects the lakes of Ladoga and Onega. The steamer will stop at Lodeinoé Polé (the Field of Lodi), more than half way down the river. This is a place of some interest as the spot where Peter the Great built his first galleys in 1702. He superintended their building in person, and subsequently employed them in taking the fortress of Schlüsselburg from the Swedes. A monument of cast iron marks the site of a house in which Peter resided.

Emerging on Ladoga, the largest lake in Europe, having an area of 336 sq. geog. m., and after a voyage of some hours, the traveller will come in sight of the grim fortress of Schlüsselburg, where the river Neva takes its rise. For a description of this fortress, and of the course of the Neva, *vide* Rte. 1, Excursion 6.

The overland route from Vytegra to St. Petersburg passes through Lodeinoé Polé (855½ v. from Archangel) and the town of Novaya Ladoga (957½ v.), in which there is nothing of interest, except the canal and locks. There are 23 stages between Vytegra and St. Petersburg, the longest being 27½ v. and the shortest 10¾ v. The town of Schlüsselberg, through which the traveller will pass during the last part of his journey, is 60 v. from St. Petersburg by the post road.

ROUTE 4.

BERLIN TO REVAL, BY RIGA, DORPAT, ETC.

Sea Route.—Riga may be reached by steamers from Hull, Stettin, and Lubeck.

Overland Route.—A branch line from Dünaburg (*vide* Rte. 1) places Riga in direct rly. communication with St. Petersburg, Moscow, and the Southern lines, as well as with the network of European rlys.

Fare from London (*viâ* Calais) to Riga: 1st class, 324 francs 80 c.; 1st and 2nd (mixed), 261 fr. 5 c.

Stations :—
Dünaburg (*vide* Rte. 1).
Lixna, 9¾ m. from Dünaburg.
Kreutzburg, 55 m. Train stops 52 min.
Römershof, 91 m. Train stops 10 min.

RIGA.—*Hotels:* Hôtel de St. Petersburg in the Castle Square; Stadt London, in the centre of the old town; Hôtel du Nord, near the English ch.

There is room for improvement in the hotels at Riga, but the prices are lower than those of the best hotels at St. Petersburg.

Café: Kröpsch's, near the Exchange.

Riga, the capital of Livonia, with a Pop. of 100,000, is the chief seat of the political, military, and administrative government of the 3 Baltic provinces, Livonia, Esthonia, and Courland, as well as the centre of their commercial and industrial activity.

Livonia was almost unknown to the rest of Europe until 1158, when some Bremen merchants on a trading voyage to Wisby, on the Swedish island of Gottland, were wrecked on the Livonian coast, and soon after formed settlements on it, and established commercial relations with the inhabitants. Meinhardt, an Augustine monk, converted the Livonians to Christianity in 1168, and became their first bishop, but it was not until the time of Albert, the 4th bishop, that the Christian religion was fully introduced. Albert built Riga A.D. 1200, and made it the seat of the bishopric. Towards the end of that cent. the Baltic provinces were seized by King Knut VI. of Denmark; they were subsequently sold by Waldemar III., one of his descendants, to the Order of the Brethren of the Cross and Sword (Schwert brüder) founded by Bishop Albert.

In the full spirit of the name they bore, these warlike adventurers speedily enlarged the territories of the Hanse Towns. Ignorant of the language, and despising the habits of the natives, their principal weapon of conversion to the true faith was the sword by which they held their footing on the shores of the east sea; though on one occasion the Bishop of Riga is reported to have edified the minds of heathen Wends by a dramatic representation of a variety of scenes from the Bible. All writers concur in describing the cruelties practised upon the unbelieving natives by these Christian warriors as of the most revolting and barbarous description. They were not long permitted to pursue their career of conquest and tyranny with impunity. On the north, they were compelled to recoil before the arms of the Dane; while the Russians, alarmed at the near approach of such formidable neighbours, roused the natives to avenge the wrongs of half a century of oppression, and the flame of insurrection spread far and wide throughout Livonia and Esthonia. Many Germans were cut off by the insurgents; but at length Bishop Bernhard, falling upon their tumultuous forces with his disciplined chivalry, routed the Wends (the aborigines of Livonia) and their allies, and slew them mercilessly. The Russian town of Dorpat was taken, and a German colony established there (A.D. 1220). The capture of the isle of Oesel, to the rocky fastnesses of which the best and bravest of the Livonians had retired as a last refuge, and the voluntary conversion of the Courlanders, established the power of the brotherhood. The Emperor Frederick II. (1230) conferred the conquered provinces as an imperial fief on Valquin, the grand master of the order, and everything seemed to promise the rapid rise of a mighty kingdom, when a sudden attack of the Lithuanians laid low the grand master and his hopes of conquest, and nearly annihilated the entire forces of the brotherhood. The scanty relics of this powerful body now called for aid on their brethern the Teutonic knights, who were anxiously seeking a fairer field for military achievements than the East, where they were alike harassed by the open violence of the Mussulman, and the jealousy of the rival orders, the Templars and Hospitallers. The presence of these hardy warriors restored the Christians to their former superiority in the field, and these new comers soon rivalled the knights of the Cross

and Sword in cruelty, burning whole villages that had relapsed into idolatry, and making, in the words of one of their own bishops, "out of free-born men the most wretched slaves." As allies of the Poles, they built on the Vistula the fort of Nassau, and, sallying forth from thence, took by storm the holy oak of Thorn, the chief sanctuary of the Prussians, and beneath its far-spreading arms, as in a citadel, the knights defended themselves against the frantic attacks of the pagans. A general rising of the natives, and a war of extermination, reduced their numerous forces to a few scanty troops, and their ample domains to 3 strongholds; and, after various alternate defeats and victories, they were rescued from entire destruction by a crusade, under the command of the Bohemian monarch, Ottokar the Great, who founded the city of Königsberg (A.D. 1260), and gave for a time new life and vigour to the falling fortunes of the northern chivalry.

Internal dissensions, and the consequent establishment of a second grand master, who held his seat at Mergentheim, weakened the growing power of the reviving brotherhood, and the fatal battle of Tannenberg (1410) gave a mortal blow to the importance of this "unnatural institution;" but the knights still retained the whole eastern coast of the Baltic, from the Narova to the Vistula, and it was not until the end of the 15th cent. that the arms of Poland compelled them finally to relinquish their claims to the district of eastern and western Prussia. The ancient spirit of the order awoke once again in the Grand Master Tlettenberg, who routed the Russians in 1502, and compelled the Tsar to agree to a truce for 50 years; but the stipulated time had no sooner elapsed than the Russians again invaded them, and, too feeble any longer to resist such powerful enemies, the knights were glad to purchase peace and the undisturbed possession of the province of Courland as a fief of the Polish crown by surrendering Esthonia to Sweden, and Livonia to the Poles, while the districts of Narva and Dorpat were incorporated with the empire of Russia. Still the brotherhood existed. Without importance as an independent power, but valuable as an ally, its friendship was sought and courted in the various intrigues and commotions of the Russian throne during the early part of the 18th cent.

Esthonia and *Livonia* were finally given up by Sweden to Russia in 1721, at the peace of Nystadt. By the terms of the capitulation which preceded that treaty, the Protestant religion and the German language were guaranteed, as well as all ancient rights and privileges.

Courland was incorporated with Russia in 1795, at the 3rd partition of Poland; Peter Biren, the last duke, son of the favourite of the Empress Anne of Russia, receiving as compensation the sum of 2,000,000 rubles pension for life.

The town of Riga has been much embellished and enlarged since the removal of the lines of fortification in 1858. It has quite the appearance of a German town. The majority of the inhabitants are German Protestants; Russians are next in numerical importance. There are many Letts and Poles; among the foreigners the English are the most numerous. Riga is the second commercial city of Russia. During the season 2000 ships load opposite the town. The principal exports are grain, linseed, flax, hemp, and wood; the chief imports, salt, herrings, coal, iron, machinery, colonial goods, &c. There are 70 factories, mills, and other similar establishments in the town and suburbs.

The principal learned and scientific societies are the Society of History and Antiquities of the Baltic Provinces, the Society of Naturalists, and the Society of Practical Literature. There are a high school for technical science, two gymnasiums, a school of navigation, and several other public and private schools. The town is very richly endowed with charitable institutions, many of which are of ancient foundation; amongst the number are an ex-

cellent orphan asylum, and several asylums for widows of citizens in reduced circumstances.

Music is the most cultivated of the fine arts.

A good operatic company, a musical society, and 5 singing clubs are among the amusements of Riga.

The sights of the town are—

The Imperial Castle, a massive building with 2 crenelated towers, dating from the time of the grand masters of the Teutonic Knights. Over an archway in the court is a stone statue of the Virgin Mary, protectress of the German orders; also, the statue of the celebrated Grand Master Walter von Tlettenberg. The castle is now the residence of the Governor General. In front of the castle is a monument raised by the citizens in honour of Alexander I., to commemorate the campaign of 1812.

The *Citadel*, with an arsenal, military barracks, and a handsome Russo-Greek cathedral, dedicated to St. Peter and St. Paul.

The *Mansion House*, containing most interesting archives connected with the ancient history of the town.

The *Hall of the Blackheads* (Schwartzhauptern), one of the oldest buildings in the town, built early in 1200, and often restored. This is a most interesting building, not only from its peculiar style, but also from the relics which it contains, including a curious collection of silver plate.

The *Guildhalls* of the great and small guilds; handsome modern buildings in the Gothic and mediæval styles, containing many curiosities of the middle ages.

The *Cathedral Church*, a large building of the 13th and 14th centy., containing the tomb of the 1st bishop of Livonia.

St. Peter's Church, with a lofty spire of a peculiarly bold construction, from the galleries of which extensive views may be obtained.

The *English Church*, a building in the purest style, where service is performed by a resident clergyman. Built and entirely supported by the English merchants established at Riga.

The *Town Library*, containing many rare manuscripts.

The *Museum*, containing a fine archæological and zoological collection.

The *Braderlow Gallery of Paintings*, containing many originals by celebrated masters.

The *Ritter-house*, containing the knights' hall, and the coats of arms of all the Livonian nobility, who hold their parliaments there.

The *Exchange*, a handsome new building, in the Florentine style.

The *Theatre*, an imposing building of the handsomest description, open during nearly the whole year.

There are also *Club-houses*, where balls are given during the winter season, and where the national and foreign newspapers are to be found for the use of the members or of visitors, who can be introduced by a member free of all payment.

Outside the town are the *Imperial Public Gardens*, with an elm planted by Peter the Great; and the Wohrman Park, with an establishment for preparing and dispensing mineral waters, which are taken early on summer mornings to the music of a good band.

The communication with the left bank of the river, on which are the Mittau suburb, the herring wharf, &c., is in summer maintained by a floating bridge, or long raft, about 2000 ft. long, across which goods are passed from the large flat-bottomed barges that arrive in spring from the interior of the country, and which anchor on the upper side of the bridge. The ships frequenting this port lie in rows, head or stern on, at the lower side of the bridge.

Riga is supplied with water and gas by establishments under the management of a town committee.

The principal objects of interest in the neighbourhood are the *Fortress of Dünamunde*, 1 hour from Riga by steamboat, and the *mole* opposite, built to maintain deep water at the mouth of the Dwina; the large *Mili-*

tary Hospital and *House of Correction*, at *Alexander's Hohe;* the old *Ruins of Kokenhusen Castle*, on the Dwina, standing in the midst of peculiarly striking and beautiful scenery; and the *Livonian Switzerland*, with the 3 old castles of Cremon, Tryden, and Segewold, all in situations of great beauty. These are about 4 hours' drive from Riga, along a good road.

Dübeln Stat., a watering-place situated on the Courland river Aa, distant about 15 Eng. m. from Riga, with which place there is frequent daily communication by steamboat. Fare ½ silver rouble; length of passage about 2 hrs. Dübeln is much frequented for sea-bathing during the season, from July to September inclusive, by visitors from the neighbouring provinces, as well as from St. Petersburg and other parts of Russia. The village, consisting of small wooden houses, with a few of a better class interspersed, is unfortunately situated in a sandy hollow on the bank of the river, and distant ¼ m. from the sea, from which it is separated by a low hill covered with pine-trees. No houses are allowed to be built overlooking the sea. The hours of bathing for ladies and gentlemen respectively are regulated by the ringing of a bell, and any infringement by the one sex on the hours sacred to the other is visited with a severe fine when detected. To those accustomed to witness the promiscuous bathing of the sexes in the immediate vicinity of Riga, this phase of Russo-German modesty appears somewhat exaggerated.

Diligences run daily from Riga to *Mittau* (3 hours), *Dorpat* (26 hours), and other towns in Livonia. Steamers ply twice a week to *Reval* and *St. Petersburg*, and other places. A railway is in course of construction from Riga to Mittau.

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1. *Mittau* (Hôtel de Courlande) (Pop. 26,000), the capital of Courland, was founded in 1266, when the Grand Master, Conrad Medem, built a castle on the site of the present palace, the residence in 1798 and 1804 of Louis XVIII., as Count de Lille. This remarkable building was almost entirely built by Biren, the favourite of the Empress Anne, when he was chosen "chief of the Courish nobility." There is a museum and a library containing 7500 vols.; a gymnasium, with a library of 30,000 vols.; and many benevolent institutions. The carnival is the gayest period of the year at Mittau.

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2. *Dorpat.* Hôtel de St. Petersburg; Hôtel de Londres. Pop. 14,000. The history of this town is a stirring and a stormy one. The Russians from the E., the Teutonic Knights from the W., the quarrels of both with the aboriginal Esthonians, and the bloody wars between the Russians, Swedes, and Poles, more than once laid it in ashes. Its University was founded by Gustavus Adolphus in 1632, the year of his death, and, after various vicissitudes, it took refuge in Sweden, to avoid the Russian army in 1710. Professors, students, libraries, museums—all departed; and returned only under the auspices of the Emperor Alexander I. in 1802.

Among the professors one name may be cited of great celebrity, that of the late Otto Struve, whose astronomical labours have procured him a well-earned reputation throughout Europe. The observatory on the Domberg, from the character of the work done there, is ranked among the most celebrated institutions in this branch of science, and well worthy of being seen. Here is a great refracting telescope, the work of Frauenhofer, mounted in such a manner that the iron roof, revolving round a vertical line, affords complete protection from the weather without hindering the view of any point in the heavens. This was designed and constructed by Mr. Parrot, and so beautifully is it executed that one hand is enough to impel and guide the machinery which moves the telescope and roof. The Emperor Alexander I. presented the telescope to the

University. Some of the apparatus which was used in measuring a portion of the meridian of Dorpat is to be seen here. The library is curiously situated in the ruins of the old Dom; the views from hence are very fine. The broad crown of the hill, adorned by numerous avenues of trees, is called Cathedral Place; the ruins of a ch., destroyed in 1775, by a fire which consumed nearly the whole town, explains the origin of this name. On the Domberg are likewise the Schools of Anatomy and Natural History, the museums, &c. The philosophical instruments are remarkable for their having been made for the most part by a Russian artisan of the name of Samoiloff. Of all the collections of the University, that of the Botanical Garden is the most complete; it contains more than 18,000 plants, some of which are not to be found in the other botanical gardens of Europe. Dorpat, like Reval, had once its corps of Schwarzen Haupter, or "association of citizens for the defence of the city;" it is now merely a convivial club. Among its treasures is a magnificent goblet of glass and gold, 2 ft. high, on the side of which are engraved a beetle, a hummingbird, and a butterfly. With the exception of the Dom no vestige remains at Dorpat of the ancient Gothic nucleus of the town; all is new. The fortifications have been converted into agreeable promenades. A granite bridge over the Embach, which is navigable up to Dorpat, adds not a little to the appearance of the town.

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3. *Reval* (Pop. 25,000). *Hotels:* the Hôtel Wittestrand; and the Lion d'Or.

Esthonia, too insignificant a country to govern itself, but, from its position, too tempting a prize to be disregarded by neighbouring states, has been roughly used by every northern power, and has exhibited scenes of suffering and discord of which the history of the town of Reval, its capital, is sufficient give an epitome. The first buildings recorded as occupying its present site were erected by Eric XIV., King of Denmark.

"These consisted of a monastery dedicated to the archangel Michael, afterwards transformed into a convent of Cistercian nuns, the ruins of which are still standing, and whence the *Cisternpforte*, one of the gates of the town, derives its name; and a fortress called Lindanisse, and by the peasants Dani-Linna, or Danish town, whence the contraction Tallina, the Esthonian name for Reval at the present day. To these were added other buildings: but it was not until 1219 that Waldemar II. of Denmark pulled down the fortress, probably on the Dome Hill, and set about erecting a regular town. From this time it appears to have been called Reval, about the derivation of which many have disagreed, but which appears with the most probability to arise from the Danish word Refwell, a reef. Reval now became of sufficient importance to be quarrelled for by the Danes, the Swedes, the Livonian Knights, then recently united with the Grand Order of the Teutonic Knights, and even by the Pope himself, who, however, seems to have thrown his interest into the scale of Denmark, by which, in 1240, it was elevated to the seat of a bishopric. To this was shortly after added (1284) the privileges of a Hanseatic town. Trade now began to flourish, and was further encouraged during the regency of the Queen Mother of Denmark, Margaretta Sambiria, who selected Esthonia as her *Wittwensitz*, confirmed and increased the privileges of Reval, endowed it with the right of coinage, &c., and enfranchised it from all outer interference. These privileges, however, did not extend to the Dome, where the Stadthalter, or governor, resided, and which, as it still continues, was independent of the town, and not considered Reval. But even this short age of gold was disturbed by many bitter quarrels about rights of boundary, &c., which have by no means fallen into disuse. This fertile province of Esthonia, with its wealthy little capital, from being a widow's

dowry, became a bride's portion, and in right of his wife, a princess of Sweden, was possessed for some time by a Markgraf of Brandenburg. After that it again changed hands, and was at length formally sold, in 1347, to the Grand Master of the Teutonic Order at Marienburg, and given, at first in trust, and afterwards as an independent possession, to his ally, the Master of the Order in Livonia."

The luxurious habits of the nobility fell hard upon the neglected serf peasant, and an old saying still exists, that "Esthonia was an Elysium for the nobility, a heaven for the clergy, a mine of gold for the stranger, but a hell for the peasant," who, agreeably to the history of most republics, was ground down to the most abject poverty. Consequently, in 1560, the peasants rose in immense numbers, attacked castles and monasteries, killing and slaying all before them, and menaced Reval, where many of their lords had taken refuge, so seriously, that with Russia, always a troublesome neighbour, invading their frontier, and unaided by their knights, who were fettered with debts, and had battles enough of their own to fight at this time, the Revalensers and the rest of the province formally threw off the dominion of the Order, and, calling over the aid of Sweden, took the oaths of allegiance to King Eric XIV. in 1561.

"The manner in which the provinces of Esthonia and Livonia were wrested from Charles XII. of Sweden, by Peter the Great, is too well known to need repetition. The Esthonians esteem themselves fortunate in being united to Russia under so enlightened a Tsar, who left them all their privileges, and took much delight in his new acquisition, visiting Reval several times, and instituting public improvements. Reval indeed has received visits from all the sovereigns in turn, who have paid due homage to its beauty and salubrity; and also, among similar events, remembers with pride the visit of Nelson.

"The province has been allowed to retain its own jurisdiction, which is administered by 12 Landräthe, a strictly honorary office, dating from the 14th centy. The most distinguished names which fill the pages of Esthonian history, either in an episcopal, military, or civil capacity, are those of the Barons Meyendorf, Uxküll (the Esthonian name for the same, but now a distinct family), Rosen, and Ungern, all of which still exist in very flourishing condition, with many others, of more recent origin, from Sweden, Russia, and all parts of Europe, including even the names of Douglas, O'Rourke, and Lewis of Menar, which stand here in friendly propinquity, their British origin being overlooked in their established Esthonian antiquity.

"I will only add that Reval and Esthonia—for their histories blend too much to be separated—were more or less under the dominion of Denmark until 1347, under that of the Order of Schwerdt-brüder until 1561, under Sweden until 1700, since when they have proved themselves most loyal subjects to Russia."

Reval is divided into 2 parts, the upper and lower town; the former, perched on the top of a rocky eminence, about a mile in circumference, encloses within its old Gothic walls the Dom, the castle, with the residence of the governor, the commandant's house, the gymnasium, and the houses of the nobility. The whole of this quarter is called the Dom, and no plebeian is permitted to possess ground on this aristocratic reef of rocks. The lower part, the descent to which is very steep, at one spot almost dangerous for carriages, is of considerable extent, and in the broad streets, stretching to the flat sandy shore of the harbour, are the dwellings and warehouses of the merchants, the *rathhouse*, the guild-house, the bank, the barracks, and the theatre.

The churches of Reval include 5 Russian, 1 Swedish, 1 Danish, and 4 German. The Lutheran are of great antiquity. The *Olaikirche*, originally built in 1329, was struck and partially consumed by lightning no less than 8

times; and it was only in 1840 that it rose from the ashes in which it was laid in 1820.

"Its archives and library, however, preserve an unbroken history; and many of its architectural ornaments, coeval with its earliest erection, have been saved from the flames. Among the former is a piece of sculpture of great richness, consisting of two wide niches, the upper one empty, the lower occupied by a skeleton, with a toad resting on the body and a serpent crawling out of the ear—supposed to typify the destruction of an idol image recorded to have been filled with these reptiles; and with a gorgeous breadth of stone-work in 8 partitions around, exhibiting the triumph of Christianity in the Passion of our Saviour, and other parts of the New Testament. This bears date 1513. The tower, rebuilt precisely on the former scale and form, is about 250 ft. high, and serves as a landmark in navigation. This edifice, the cathedral church of the lower town, is in pure early Gothic, with lancet windows of great beauty, and dedicated to St. Olai, a canonized King of Norway, who mounted the throne at the beginning of the 11th centy., and first introduced Christianity among the Norwegians.

"The next ch. of importance is that of *St. Nicholas*—a large, 3-aisled structure with a massive square tower—built by Bishop Nicholas in 1317. This appears to have eluded the zeal of the iconoclasts of reforming times, and possesses many relics of Roman Catholic times. The most interesting are the pictures of the altar, especially 2 wing paintings containing small half-length figures of bishops, cardinals, priests, and nuns—3 on each side—in Holbein's time and manner, on a blue ground, and of great beauty. Also a picture, placed for better lighting at the back of the altar—a Crucifixion, including the 2 thieves, with town and mountains in the background, and a procession of equestrian figures entering the gate. This is of singular beauty of expression and ~rm, though much injured by recent ovations—of the school of Raphael, and especially in the manner of Andrea del Salerno.

"Immediately at the entrance of the ch., on the right hand, is a representation of the oft-repeated *Dance of Death*—coinciding not only in age and arrangement, but also word for word in the Plat Deutsch verses beneath, with the same subject in St. Mary's church at Lübeck.

"The chapels of some of the chief nobility, with massive iron gates and richly adorned with armorial bearings, are attached to this ch., though all in a very neglected state. The Rosen chapel is now occupied by the unburied body of a prince, who expiates in this form a life of extravagance. The Duke de Croy—a prince of the Roman Empire, Markgraf of Mount Cornette, and of other fiefs, &c., and descended from the Kings of Hungary—after serving with distinction under the Emperor of Austria and King of Poland, passed over to the service of Peter the Great, obtained the command of the Russian army, and was defeated by Charles XII. at the battle of Narva. Fearing the Tsar's resentment, he surrendered to the enemy, and was sent a prisoner at large to Reval, at that epoch under the sway of Sweden. Here, indulging a passion for ostentation, he managed to spend so much, that, though only a few years elapsed between his removal to Reval and his death, the residue of his fortune was unequal to meet his debts; upon which the numerous creditors, availing themselves of an old law, which refuses the rites of sepulture to insolvent debtors, combined to deny him a Christian burial, and the body was placed in a cellar in the precincts of this ch. It remained in its unconsecrated abode until, accident having discovered it, in 1819, in a state of perfect preservation owing to the antiputrescent properties of the cold, it was removed into the Rosen chapel, and now ranks among the lions of this little capital. The corpse is attired in a rich suit of black velvet and white satin, equally uninjured by the tooth of time—with silk stockings, full curled wig, and a ruff of the most

exquisite point lace, which any modern grand duchess might also approve. The remains are those of a small man, with an aristocratic line of countenance.

"In respect of antiquity the Esthonian church bears off the palm in Reval, being mentioned by Jean Bishop of Reval, when he granted to the city the '*Jus ecclesiasticum et episcopale*,' after the form of the Lübeck statute, in 1284, a time when St. Olai and St. Nicholas did not exist.

"The *Russian church*, or one adapted to the Russian service in later times, is also of great antiquity, but has been altered to the external type of all Greek places of worship.

"The *Hôtel de Ville* has been also renovated with windows of modern form. Within, the magisterial chair is still held in the empty and worn-out forms of days of more importance; and the effigy of the burgher who had his tongue cut out for divulging a state secret, warns his successors of less responsible times to be more discreet.

"Several Guildhalls, with groined roofs, tell of those corporations of merchants who here met for business or feasting, and are now passed away with the commerce of Reval: with the exception, however, of the corps of the *Schwarzen Häupter*, *les Frères têtes-noires*—so called probably from their patron saint, St. Mauritius—a military club of young merchants formed in 1343 for the defence of the city. These were highly considered—were endowed by the Masters of the Order with the rank and privileges of a military body—wore a peculiar uniform—had particular inauguration ceremonies and usages—and bore their banner, '*aut vincendum aut moriendum*,' on many occasions most gallantly against the numberless foes who coveted the riches of Reval.

"The chief edifice where they held their meetings is adorned in front with a Moor's head and other armorial pieces of sculpture; but within it has been stripped of all antiquity, excepting the archives of the Order, and portraits of the various crowned heads and Masters of the Livonian Order who have held Esthonia in their sway. The altarpiece from the convent of St. Brigitta—a magnificent ruin upon the sea-coast in full view of Reval—is also placed here, being a piece in 3 compartments, in the Van Eyck manner, comprising God the Father, with the Infant Saviour in the centre—the Virgin on the one hand, the Baptist on the other—and greatly recalling portions of the famous altarpiece painted for St. Bavon's church at Ghent. On the back of the two wings, and closing over the centre-piece, is the subject of the Annunciation—2 graceful figures in grey, of later Italian date."

"This city is further strewn with the ruined remains of convents and monasteries of considerable interest, though too much choked with parasitical buildings to be seen to any advantage. The outer circumference is bound in with *walls and towers* of every irregular form, most of which have significant names, as for instance, '*der lange Herrmann*,' a singularly beautiful and lofty circular tower crowning the Dom; and '*die dicke Marguerite*,' a corpulent erection lower in the town.

"The Dom is equally stored with traces of olden times, consisting of the old *Castle*, which encloses an immense quadrangle, and is in part appropriated to the governor's residence; the *Dom Church*, a building of incongruous architecture, is filled with tombs of great interest, of the Counts de la Gardie, Thurn, Horn, &c., beneath which lie the vaults of several corporations of trade, variously indicated—the shoemakers' company by the bas-relief of a colossal boot in the pavement—the butchers' by an ox's head, &c. Further on is the *Ritterschafts Haus*, or Hôtel de la Noblesse, where the Landräthe assemble, the Landtag is held, and all the business connected with the aristocracy of the province conducted. Every family of matriculated nobility has here its shield of arms and date of patent; while on tablets of white marble are inscribed the names of all the noble Esthonians who served in the French

campaign, and on tables of black marble the names of those who fell; and truly Esthonia has not been niggard of her best blood.

"Reval is entered by 7 gates; they are all picturesque erections, decorated with various historical mementos, the arms of the Danish domination, the simple cross of the order on the municipal shield of the city.

"In the summer there is an annual fair, called the *Jahrmarkt*, which is held beneath the old elm-trees before the church of St. Nicholas—a most interesting scene to the stranger—and forms the morning lounge of the inhabitants during that season of the year. In the evening *Catherinthal* is the favourite promenade. This is an Imperial *Lustschloss*, or palace, at a little distance from the town, surrounded with fine trees and well-kept grounds, or what is here termed 'ein superber Park,' which during 6 weeks of the summer months is thronged with fashionable groups, who eat ices, drink chocolate, talk scandal, and make love, as people do elsewhere.

"This residence, which is literally a bower of verdure redeemed from a waste of sand, is the pleasant legacy of Peter the Great to the city of Reval. Being a frequent visitor to Reval, it was here that he first erected a modest little house beneath the rocks of the Laaksberg, from the windows of which he could overlook his infant fleet riding at anchor in the bay, and which still exists. But a few years previous to his death, the present palace, within a stone's throw of his Dutch house,—for all Peter the Great's own private domiciles testify whence he drew his first ideas of comfort,—was constructed, which he surrounded with pleasure-grounds, and presented to his consort by the name of Catherinthal. It has been the temporary sojourn of all the crowned heads of Russia in succession; and the treaty of peace concerning Silesia, between the two most powerful women of coeval times whom the world has ever known—Maria Theresa of Austria and Catherine II. of Russia—was here ratified in 1746.

"The population of Reval, which is 18,000 (now 25,000), is greatly swelled during the summer by hundreds of Petersburgians that come here to bathe. The steamers from the capital are constantly plying, so overloaded with passengers as greatly to neutralize accommodations otherwise good."

"A day may be profitably and agreeably spent in driving to *Padis Kloster*, distant 13 m. from the town, one of the finest ruins in Esthonia.

"This monastery is mentioned in the beginning of the 14th centy., when, owing to starvation without its walls, and doubtless a very comfortable life within, the peasants rose in numbers around, murdered the abbot and monks, and so devastated the place, that in 1448 it received a further and full consecration at the hands of Heinrich Baron Uxküll, Bishop of Reval; at which time it was ordained, that whoever should in any way enrich or benefit this *Kloster* of Padis, should, for any sins he might commit, have 40 days of penance struck off. Hence, perhaps, arose the peculiar repute and custom in the sale of indulgences which this monastery enjoyed."—*Letters from the Baltic.*

Reval has an arsenal, and the fleet from Cronstadt rendezvous here at times. Russian vessels of war are generally stationed in the harbour.

The *club* of the nobility and *savans* contains some handsome apartments, and a collection of portraits of Swedish sovereigns, arms, and relics of remarkable persons. The English, French, and German newspapers are taken in here, and a stranger may readily procure admittance. At Reval is the mausoleum of Admiral Greig, the hero of Chesmé, who was buried here with great pomp in 1788.

St. Petersburg may be reached from Reval by steamer in 24 hours.

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ROUTE 5.

ST. PETERSBURG TO NOVGOROD THE GREAT.

This is an excursion that every traveller who wishes to study Russian antiquities should make.

The journey is performed in summer by train to *Volkhova* Stat. (see Rte. 6). Fare, 6 rs. 15 c. Steamer from Volkhova to Novgorod, and *vice versâ*, to correspond. Between 4 and 5 hours by river. In winter, passengers for Novgorod leave the train at *Chudova* (on Moscow line, 75 m. from St. Petersburg), and engage sledges, which are always in waiting, for Novgorod, about 45 m. distant. In either case the trip need not occupy more than 2 or 3 days. Stations at Chudova and Volkhova small. *Principal Inn* at Novgorod, "Berezinskaya Gostinnitsa," in the main, or Moscow Street. Very good, clean rooms, opened in 1867; prices moderate. The inn close to the steamboat pier not as good. Travellers are recommended to take a commissioner or servant with them.

NOVGOROD, Pop. 18,000, on the Volkhof river. The glorious history of this old city may be read in its churches, the only surviving monuments of its former greatness. It was the cradle of the Russian empire, for the Rurik dynasty first settled there in 862. The Grand-ducal throne having been soon after removed to Kief, the citizens of Novgorod grew in power as the princes of the house of Rurik weakened their dominion by constant wars in disputes relative to the right of succession. From 1136 the Novgorodians acquired the right of calling in princes to govern them according to the laws of the city, and of "showing them the way out of it" when they gave no satisfaction. Their popular assemblies, or Veché, strengthened by the subdivision of Russia into petty principalities, assumed still greater authority during the Mongol invasion. They devised in open council common measures of protection. The dominion of the invaders once established over the greater part of Russia, with the exception of Novgorod, which the Tartars never reached, the princes, who had always sought merely their own personal advantage, were gained over to the camps of the Khans by bribes and offers of support against their unruly people, who were thus driven into still stronger union. Relying on the support of his Tartar protectors and the power of his officers, Yaroslaf, Great Prince of Novgorod in 1270, neglected the conditions on which he had ascended the throne, pursued a despotic course, and became deaf to the popular voice. The bell of the Veché soon struck the hour of his downfall. The citizens assembled at the Cathedral of St. Sophia, and at once resolved to depose Yaroslaf, and to put his favourites to death. The chief of these was killed, the others fled to sanctuary, leaving their houses to be pillaged and razed to the ground by the angry populace. An act of accusation was brought against the Prince in the name of Novgorod. "Why," asked the citizens, "didst thou take possession of the palace of Mortkinitch? Why didst thou take silver from the boyars Nikifor, Robert and Bartholomew? Why didst thou send away the foreigners (merchants) who lived peaceably among us? Why do thy birdcatchers (ducks were then plentiful) deprive us of our river Volkhof, and thy huntsmen of our fields? Let thy oppression now cease! Go where thou willst; we shall find another prince."

"Who can resist God and the Great Novgorod?" was a proverbial expres-

sion of the time, evidently founded on a consciousness of popular power. The "Lord Great Novgorod," as the State was quaintly styled, exercised all the rights of sovereignty until John III. incorporated it with the Grand Duchy of Moscow in 1478. The ancient trade of Novgorod with the Hanseatic towns had made it a centre of immense wealth. It once covered an area of 40 miles in circumference. The first Russian money was coined there in the early part of the 15th centy. John III. was obliged to remove more than 8000 boyars and 50 families of merchants to Moscow, before he could extinguish the spirit of independence which so many centuries of freedom and prosperity had fostered. The Veché bell was likewise carried away to Moscow, with countless treasures in gold, silver, and precious stones. However, a still sterner fate awaited the city. John the Terrible, informed that the Novgorodians intended to submit to the Prince of Lithuania, suddenly appeared on the Volkhof with an army of Opritchniks, who sacked the churches and monasteries, and during an occupation of six weeks threw hundreds and thousands of the inhabitants into the river. During the interregnum that followed the extinction of the Rurik line, Novgorod, and its "younger brother" Pskof, contemplated a union under a prince of Sweden. This was the last ineffectual effort made by the Novgorodians to re-establish their ancient self-government. It is now the chief town of a province of the same name.

The principal sights are :—

1. *Cathedral of St. Sophia*, anciently "the heart and soul of Great Novgorod." Here the princes were crowned, and in front of it the Vechés were occasionally held. The first cathedral at Novgorod was built in 989. The present edifice was originally erected in 1045, by the grandson of St. Wladimir. It was constructed by artisans from Constantinople, after the model of Justinian's Temple. It was pillaged A.D. 1065 by the Prince of Polotsk, and again in 1570 by the Opritchniks of John the Terrible. The Swedes, under Delagardie, in 1611, after killing two of the priests, destroyed the charter granted to the cathedral in 1504. The frescoes were executed in the 12th centy., but the entire building, both within and without, was completely renovated and restored between 1820 and 1837. As one of the oldest churches in Russia, its architecture will afford an interesting study. The cupola is supported by eight massive quadrangular pillars. There are two more similar pillars at the altar. Five chapels, or altars, stand within the cathedral, added at various periods from the 12th to the 16th centuries. The high-altar is of oak, and is approached by two stone steps. The mosaic-work on the wall behind the altar is considered to be cotemporaneous with the building of the cathedral, and consequently Byzantine work.

The Ikonostas was put up in 1341. The most remarkable images in it are :—1. The Saviour, a copy of an ancient image attributed to the Greek Emperor Emanuel, taken to the Cathedral of the Assumption at Moscow in 1570. 2. St. Sophia, a copy, of the same date as the church, of a Byzantine image. 3. St. Peter and St. Paul, brought, according to local tradition, from Khersonesus, together with some celebrated crosses now in the Cathedral of the Assumption, by St. Wladimir. The remaining images, 15 in number, are of greater or less antiquity. On pillars above the choir are fresco representations of canonized princes and ecclesiastics.

The chief shrines are :—1. Of St. Anne, daughter of King Olaf of Sweden, and consort of Prince Yoroslaf I. She was the first to set an example of taking the veil, according to the custom of widowed empresses in Byzantium. She died in 1050. 2. In a niche of the same wall lie the remains of St. Vladimir, son of Yaroslaf and Anne, and founder of the cathedral, who died A.D. 1052. These relics were placed there in 1652. 3. St. Nikita, Archbishop of Novgorod, reposes in a silver shrine. He was canonized for his great piety. His

prayers extinguished the flames which once threatened Novgorod with destruction, and brought down rain on the parched earth. Obiit 1108. 4. At the S. wall of the high-altar stands an empty reddish slate tomb, and over it a bronze shrine, in which repose the remains of St. Mstislaf "the Brave," Prince of Novgorod, who obtained great renown in the war for the succession, and was prevailed upon by the Novgorodians to become their prince. He freed Pskof from its enemies, and compelled the Chûds, or Finns, to pay tribute. In the midst of his greatness he was overtaken by disease, and, having caused himself to be carried into the Cathedral of St. Sophia, took the Holy Communion before the assembled citizens, and, after commending his wife and his 3 sons to the care of his brothers, crossed his once mighty arms on his breast and expired, 14th June, 1180. 5. In the N. chapel, in a rich silver shrine (1856), lies exposed the body of John Archbishop of Novgorod, who died 1186. There are 10 other shrines of saints who lived between 1030 and 1653. Nineteen archbishops and Metropolitans, between 1223 and 1818, are also buried within the cathedral, together with many princes. Only 2 of the inscriptions on the tombs of the latter are now legible; they record the deaths of Prince Mstislaf Rostislavitch in 1178, and of Vasili Mstislavitch A.D. 1218.

Among other interesting objects within the ch. may be mentioned: 1. The throne of the Tsar and Metropolitan, erected in 1560; 2. Large brass chandeliers, suspended in 1600. The 2 doors which open into the Chapel of the Nativity are very remarkable. They are of oak, overlaid with metallic plates half an inch in thickness, and bearing various devices and scrolls. Tradition says they were brought from the ancient town of Siegtoun, in Sweden, pillaged in 1187 by pirates, among whom were some Novgorodians. The Korsun (or Khersonesus) door, at the W. entrance, is likewise of wood, ornamented with bronze, bearing 54 inscriptions in Slavonian and Latin. The former are supposed to be of the 14th centy., and the latter in the Gothic style of the 13th or 14th centy. It is in dispute whether this door came from Khersonesus or from Magdeburg. Another account states that the door was carried into Poland by Boleslas II., when it was placed in a Roman Catholic church, and subsequently transported to Novgorod.

The *Sacristy*, which is in a room at the top of the cathedral, contains several ecclesiastical objects of interest, although the more ancient treasures have been removed, stolen, or burnt at various periods. There is a printed copy of the Gospels in a cover of the 16th centy. The mitres, croziers, and panagias are of the 16th and 17th cents. Among the antiquities, not ecclesiastical, are: 1. A cap of maintenance, of wood, covered with silk, supposed to have belonged to the princes of Novgorod; 2. Archbishop's seal; 3. Silk standard, with a monogram of the Saviour's name—tradition says it was carried before the ancient Governors of Novgorod; 4. Large silk standard of Novgorod, presented by the Tsars Peter and John in 1693; 5. A collection of small silver coins from John III. to Peter I.; 6. Old dishes of German work.

Library.—This was one of the richest in Russia, but in 1859 the MSS. were removed to St. Petersburg. A collection of 20 letters from Peter the Great to Catherine I., and his son Alexis, &c., is still preserved there.

2. *The Kremlin*, or stone wall, in the centre of the city, was founded 1302, rebuilt 1490, and repaired in 1698 and 1818. A pavilion, in a garden which occupies the bed of the old moat, is raised on the spot where Martha, surnamed the "Posadnitsa," or governor (in the female gender), lived in the middle of the 15th centy. The cathedral, the archiepiscopal palace, and several churches, stand within the walls.

It is impossible to describe in the limits of this Handbook any other of the numerous churches and monasteries with which old Novgorod is adorned.

They are mostly of great antiquity, and will fully repay a minute inspection and inquiry on the spot. A work by Count M. Tolstoy, 1862, in the Russian language, contains the most complete information.

Travellers will see the great *Monument*, erected in 1862, to commemorate the 1000th anniversary of the existence of the Russian Empire. The figures on it are emblematical of the several periods of Russian history. The design is by a Russian academician, but it was cast by the English firm of Nicholls and Plincke, of the "English Magazine," at St. Petersburg.

A band plays twice a week during summer in the Summer Garden, which is unfortunately not kept in very good order.

An excursion might be made across the Ilmen lake in the steamer which leaves every other day for "Staraya Russ," a fashionable watering-place where salt baths are taken. The steamer crosses in about 3½ hrs. *Inns*, tolerably good. In winter the lake is crossed in a sledge, but Staraya Russ is not worth seeing at that season.

Travellers should, however, not fail to see the old *Monastery of Yuryeff*, near Novgorod. It is situated 2 m. out of Novgorod, between the Volkhof and Kniajevka rivers, on an elevation of considerable picturesque effect. Having been founded in 1031, by Yaroslaf, son of Vladimir, it is one of the most ancient and important monasteries in Russia. There are 3 chs. within it; that dedicated to George the Martyr is the oldest, having been erected in 1119. They were repaired in 1807, at the expense of Countess Orlof of Tchesmé, who also caused to be built the handsome belfry. Among the treasures which this monastery possesses are the charters given to it in 1128 and 1132, an altar-cloth of 1449, and a cross studded with pearls and precious stones, presented in 1599.

ROUTE 6.

ST. PETERSBURG TO MOSCOW.

By rail in 20 hrs.; fare 19 rs. and 13 rs. All luggage charged.*

This line, 403 m. in length, was constructed by the Government. The principal stations are solidly and handsomely built. The refreshment-rooms are abundantly supplied; and passengers have a liberal allowance of time for dinner, tea, and supper. The first stat. is.

Kolpino. There is a very large steam factory here, founded by Peter the Great. Marine engines for the navy are made here, and guns cast and bored.

Luban, the first large stat. (It will suffice to mention the principal stoppages or places to which any interest attaches.)

Chudova. The Volkhof river will be passed here. It flows from the lake Ilmen into that of Ladoga, and is navigable for barges along its entire course. Station for winter route to Novgorod the Great.

Volkhova, next stat., at foot of the bridge. Steamers for Novgorod from hence in summer. *See* Rte. 5.

Malo-Vyshera. 151½ v. from St. Petersburg. The river Msta, which rises in the Valdai hills, and flows into lake Ilmen, will be passed halfway be-

* Travellers must ascertain the changes that have been made in the management of the line since its sale to the "Grande Société des Chemins de Fer Russes."

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tween this and the next station. Immediately outside the station is the immense iron bridge, built over a ravine, on the American principle, over a height of 190 ft. Another bridge, nearly as large, over the Msta, will be passed.

Okulofka. 2 stats. beyond is

Valdai, near the small town of that name on the Valdai Lake (Pop. 4000), celebrated for its bells, which may be purchased at the stat. They are small, and when attached to harness have a very harmonious effect. Scythes and sickles are also manufactured here. Scenery wooded and hilly. The Dwina, Volga, and Volkhof rise in the Valdai hills. A monastery stands on one of the islands in the lake. It is called the Iverski, and was founded in 1652 by the patriarch Nicon. A copy of the image of the Iberian Mother of God, brought from Mount Athos in 1648, now at Moscow, adorns the altar-screen of the principal chapel. The Patriarch frequently came here.

Bologovo. 2 stats. beyond is

Vyshni-Volochok, 336 v. from St. Petersburg, town in province of Tver, on the river Tsna. (Pop. 14,000.) A canal which rises here, by joining several rivers and lakes unites the Volga and the Neva, and the Caspian and the Baltic. The rly. and the improvement of a rival canal system, by way of the Svir and Sheksna rivers, have considerably lessened the importance of the town.

Spirova. 2 stats. beyond is

Ostashkof, nearest point (40 v.) to Torjok, a town of 16,000 Inhab., where Russia leather is embroidered with gold, silver, and silk thread for slippers, cushions, bags, &c. Specimens of these wares will be seen at the stat., but they are as cheaply procured at St. Petersburg and Moscow. Torjok is the farthest point in this direction reached by the French in 1812.

Tver, 447½ v. from St. Petersburg, chief town of province. (Pop. 26,000.)

Müller's Hotel, the old posting-house, affords excellent accommodation.

Here the traveller crosses the Volga, and has the first glimpse of that mighty stream, which, rising 47 m. S.W. from Valdai, now becomes navigable, after flowing through several small lakes. Steamers ply hence to Astrakhan, a distance of about 2150 m. The town was founded in 1182, and was the seat of a principality. It is prettily situated on the bank of the river, and stands 175 ft. above the level of the water. A cathedral, rebuilt in 1682, and a very handsome belfry of 3 tiers, are the most conspicuous objects. Many of the princes of Tver and their consorts (between 1272 and 1408) lie buried there. The church of the Holy Trinity, built in 1584, is a fine remnant of ancient Russian architecture. There are secret chambers in the upper story where the clergy and citizens concealed their treasure in time of danger. The Otrotch Uspenski Monastery, at the confluence of the Volga and Tvertsa, was the prison of the Metropolitan Philip, whose cell is still shown (*see* Cathedral of Assumption, Moscow). In this he was murdered by Maluta, an agent of John the Terrible, who, after committing the crime, announced to the monks that the venerable prelate had died from the fumes of the stove.

There is a very considerable trade in grain and iron, shipped hence to St. Petersburg by the Tvertsa river and several canals. The iron is brought from the Ural to be manufactured at Tver into nails, and in that shape much of it returns to the place of original production.

Klin, town in province of Moscow; 5000 Inhab. 2 stats. beyond is

Krukova Stat. for Monastery of New Jerusalem or Voskresenski (*Resurrection*), which is about 14 m. distant. Post-horses and either a *tarantass* or a common cart may be had here to take the traveller to the monastery for a charge of 3 to 4 rubles, there and back, returning next day.

Travellers should avoid taking a common cart, for the road is bad and dusty, and they should bring with them a basket of provisions.

Tolerable accommodation will be obtained at the hostelry attached to the monastery, the last house on the

left, approaching the gate of the monastery.

An important page of the ecclesiastical history of Russia may be read here. We come upon the life and doings of the Patriarch Nicon, who laid the foundation of the monastery in 1657. On his frequent journeys to the Iberian Convent at Valdai he always stopped at the village of Voskresensk, and in 1655 built a ch. on some land which he purchased there. The Tsar Alexis, present at its consecration, named the ch., at the desire of Nicon, the New Jerusalem. The Patriarch then sent for a model of the Church of the Holy Sepulchre at Jerusalem, which he set about to imitate. The neighbouring accidents of country he called after various sacred sites in Palestine. The river Istra was converted into the Jordan; a brook, purposely formed, became the Kedron; a neighbouring village was dignified into Nazareth; and on the mound on which the Tsar stood when he bestowed the name of New Jerusalem he built a chapel and called it Eleon.

But the favour of the sovereign was suddenly withdrawn from the prelate. Nicon arrogated to himself a power in civil as well as in ecclesiastical matters, of which the Tsar and his courtiers became jealous. He also brought down upon himself the hatred of the clergy, whom he persecuted most rigorously for intemperance and other irregularities. His innovations in the ritual of the Church, induced by a warm zeal for the ancient Church and Empire of Constantinople, and effected by a comparison of more correct service-books from Mount Athos, encountered the strongest opposition, and swelled the number of his enemies. The people, driven into Dissent, founded numerous sects, which are to this day strongly inimical to the Orthodox Church and partly even to the State. He went so far in upholding the Byzantine purity of the Russian Church as to seize in the houses of the nobles, and destroy, all pictures that were not painted in the conventional forms of Greek art. In public documents he assumed a title which was equal to that of the sovereign. But at last his enemies triumphed. The Tsar, irritated at the insolence of the Patriarch, and annoyed at the unsuccessful termination of a war with the Poles and Swedes which he had undertaken by his advice, withdrew his friendship, and soon after, on a great festival of the Church, absented himself from the cathedral, in which Nicon was wont to sermonize his royal master. The Patriarch, enraged, threw off his episcopal robes, resigned his crozier, and, attiring himself in the habit of a monk, withdrew, amid the expostulation of the populace and the Tsar's officers, to his retreat at Voskresensk. But his strength and greatness of mind were not equal to the occasion. He had expected to see Alexis with tears in his eyes, asking forgiveness, and entreating him not to divest himself of his high office. The Tsar never came, and Nicon saw, when too late, that he had taken a fatal step. A Metropolitan, having been temporarily invested with the Patriarchate, considered himself justified in replacing Nicon at a ceremony in which the Primate rode on an ass to typify Christ's entry into Jerusalem; the recluse of Voskresensk protested against what he called a usurpation, under the plea that he was still a Patriarch, with the gift of the Holy Ghost to work cures, although by his own free will no longer Patriarch of Moscow. In 1664, 6 years after his resignation, Nicon appeared suddenly at matins in the Cathedral of the Assumption, arrayed once more in his pontifical robes. He wrote to the Tsar that, after long fasting and much prayer, he had been told by the canonized Jonah, in a vision, to resume his seat on the throne of the Patriarchs of Moscow. A council of the Eastern Patriarchs was soon after called at Moscow and presided over by the Tsar. Nicon was degraded and banished to the Monastery of Theraponttoff in the province of Novgorod. In 1681 he was pardoned by Theodore, the successor of Alexis, but died on his voyage down the Volga to meet the Tsar.

It was during this quarrel that

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Nicon built the greater part of the Monastery of New Jerusalem. From a small square tower beyond the Kedron he watched the progress of the building, which he was never to see completed, and even worked as a common stonemason, making bricks with his own hands. He caused the Church of the Holy Sepulchre to be copied in the minutest particulars, and it is therefore more like the old church in which the Crusaders worshipped than is that ch. itself, since it was destroyed by fire and altered in 1812. Nicon's schemes for the aggrandisement of the Russian Church was indicated by the 5 patriarchal thrones of Constantinople, Antioch, Alexandria, Jerusalem, and Moscow, which will be seen in the Sanctuary. He lies buried in the chapel of Melchizedek, at the foot of the Golgotha, close by the spot where, in the actual Church of the Holy Sepulchre, lie the remains of Godfrey of Bouillon. Over the tomb are the heavy chains which he wore round his body, and at his head is the small waxen picture which he carried about with him in all his wanderings.

Many other relics of the great Patriarch are preserved in the sacristy, together with his portrait, and that of Alexis. The principal dome having fallen in in 1723, the ch. was entirely restored by the celebrated architect Rastrelli in 1750. For further particulars respecting this interesting monastery the traveller should consult Dean Stanley's 'Lectures on the Eastern Church.'

A battle was fought in the vicinity of the monastery, June 18, 1698, between General Patrick Gordon and the rebellious Streltzi, who were thereupon suppressed, and decapitated by Peter in great numbers.

The next stat. but one is

Moscow (Pop. 380,000).

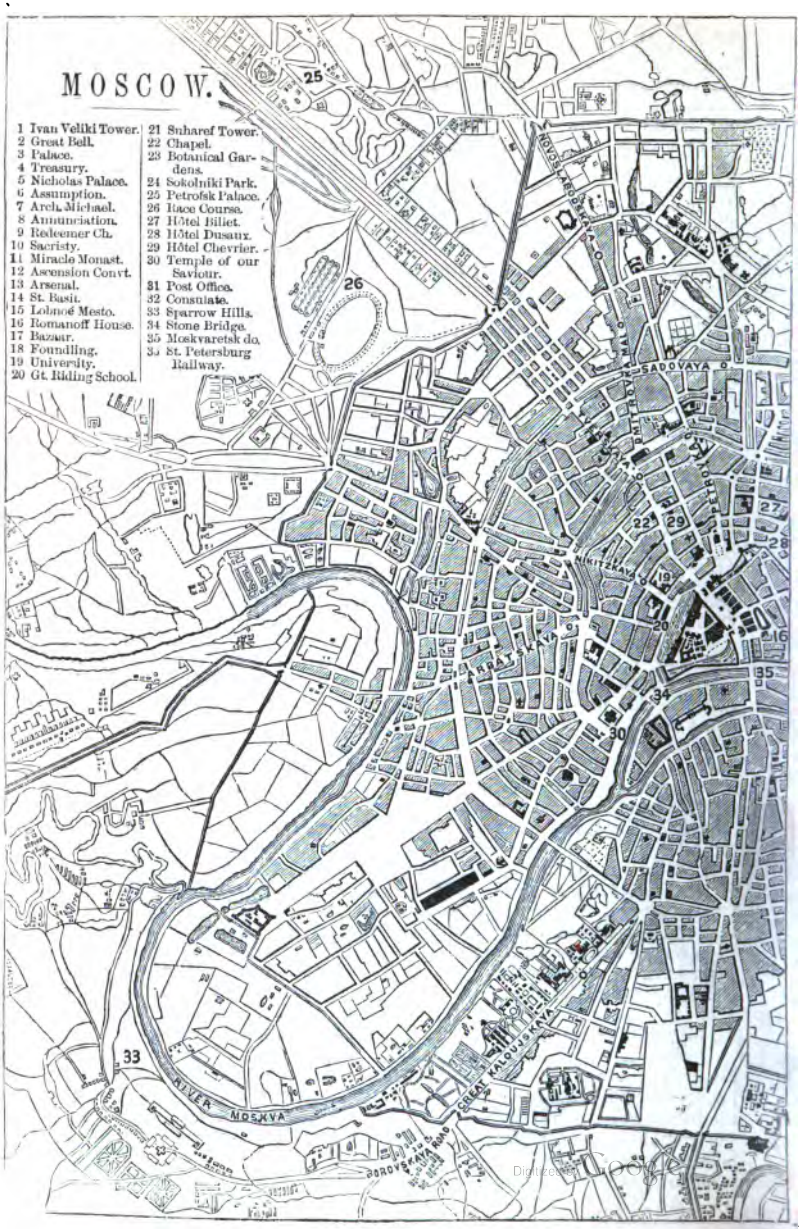
Hotels.—As at St. Petersburg, so at Moscow, a selection has to be made between the boarding-house system and the better class of Russian hotels. If the traveller speaks no French or German, and feels helpless without the assistance of a landlord or landlady who can speak his own language and that of the natives of the country, he should at once drive to "Lubianka" street. Here again a choice has to be made in the matter of a boarding-house. Unfortunately, perhaps, there are two in the same street, almost facing each other, kept on similar principals, offering equal advantages. Even the names of the proprietors are very nearly alike, with the difference only of a vowel. We therefore only mention them in alphabetical order, in indicating first Madame Billet's house, and second Mr. Billot's. Madame Billet has the advantage of her sex and parentage, for she is English by birth; Mr. Billot is the type of an obliging, serviceable landlord, well conversant with the English language, and an excellent guide to Moscow. The charges at both establishments are similar, viz. 4 rubles a day for bed and board, and a small charge extra for servants, which has, as usual, to be supplemented. Both houses are principally frequented by men of commerce, especially in winter. The dinners are good, substantial, and à la Russe, with a few homely English variations. The beds are soft and clean, and the rooms neat. The use of Persian powder forms an exception, not a rule. Tubs kept on the premises.

The independent traveller, who prefers a French *cuisine* and an apartment of greater *luxe*, or one who has a prejudice against herding with his countrymen abroad, will probably prefer the "Hôtel Dusaux," near the Kremlin, the "Hôtel Chevrier," a house of old standing, or the "Hôtel de Dresde," in the square on which stands the Governor's House. Dusaux's is modern; the charges there are from 2 rs. (6*s*.) to any other price for a bedroom, or a bedroom and parlour. Dinners *à la carte*, or at the *table-d'hôte*. Without detracting in the least from the merits of the above houses, it is right to advise the traveller once for all to be provided, when travelling in Russia, with remedies against insects of a vexatory disposition.

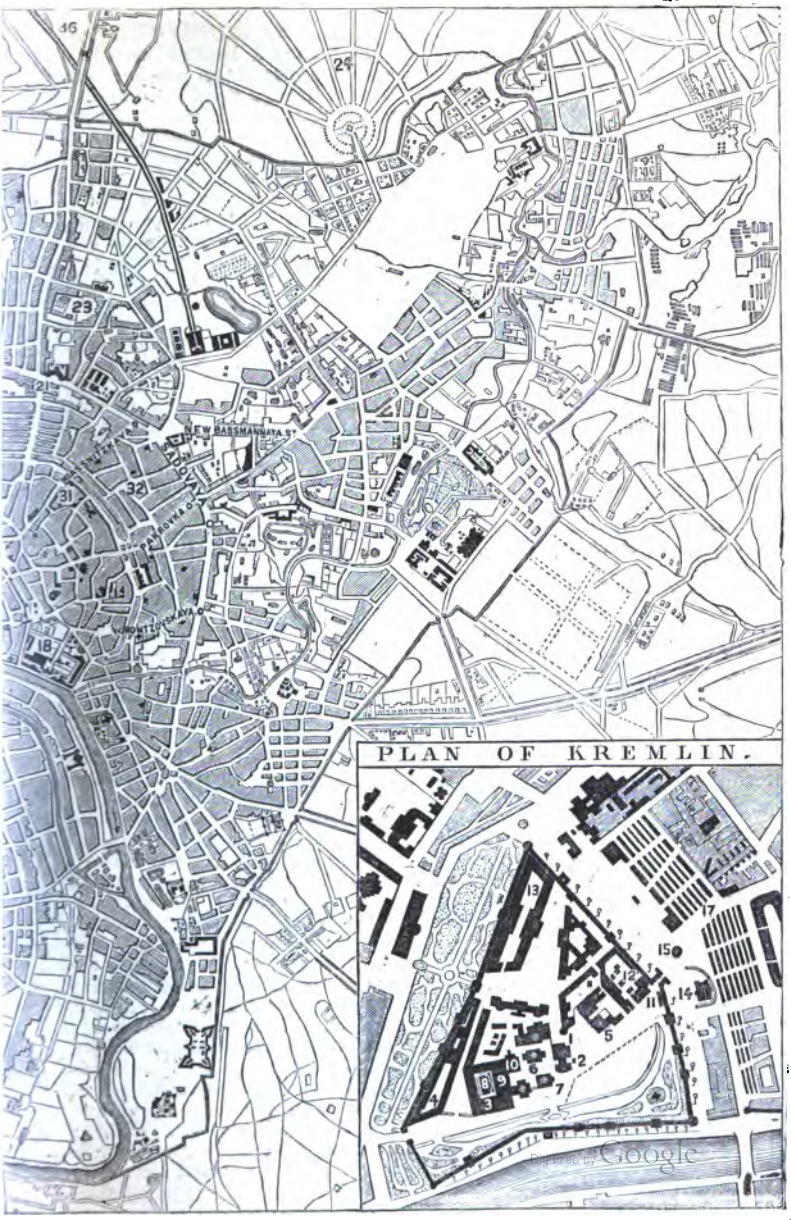
Vehicles.—Take a drojky at the station, and leave the landlord to settle

MOSCOW.

1 Ivan Veliki Tower.
2 Great Bell.
3 Palace.
4 Treasury.
5 Nicholas Palace.
6 Assumption.
7 Arch. Michael.
8 Annunciation.
9 Redeemer Ch.
10 Sacristy.
11 Miracle Monast.
12 Ascension Convt.
13 Arsenal.
14 St. Basil.
15 Lobnoé Mesto.
16 Romanoff House.
17 Bazaar.
18 Foundling.
19 University.
20 Gt. Riding School.
21 Sukharef Tower.
22 Chapel.
23 Botanical Gardens.
24 Sokolniki Park.
25 Petrofsk Palace.
26 Race Course.
27 Hôtel Billet.
28 Hôtel Dusaux.
29 Hôtel Chevrier.
30 Temple of our Saviour.
31 Post Office.
32 Consulate.
33 Sparrow Hills.
34 Stone Bridge.
35 Moskvaretsk do.
36 St. Petersburg Railway.



RAIL TO ST. PETERSBURG. SOKOLNIKI PARK.



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with the driver. There are also carriages in waiting. "Billet," "Billot," "Dusaux," and "Chevrier" will be sufficient explanation as to where you want to be driven.

Commissioners from Dusaux's and other hotels generally await the train from St. Petersburg.

Carriages can be ordered at the hotel by the day, at a charge of 5 to 6 rubles (15*s.* to 18*s.*) per diem, with the addition of "tea-money" to the driver to the extent of another shilling. They may be kept out all day and half the night with impunity, allowing only two or three hours during dinner for feeding the horses. Drojkies and sledges are cheaper.

Commissioners.—Difficult to be obtained, especially if a knowledge of the English language be demanded. Such agents will be found occasionally at the two boarding-houses, but the hotels will only be able to supply a French or German *valet de place.*

Russian Restaurants.—The dinner described under the head of "Cuisine and Restaurants" (*vide* INTRODUCTION), may be had at the "Novo-Troitski Traktir," near the market, visited by H.R.H. Prince Alfred in 1862, and by H.R.H. the Prince of Wales in 1866, or at the "Moskovski Traktir," close to the Theatre.

THE CITY OF MOSCOW.

The history of the Russian provinces through which the traveller has passed on his way to Moscow has reference to that of this ancient capital; for, though Novgorod and Tver were at one period independent, each in its turn, whether republic or principality, was subjugated by this their more powerful neighbour, and in the 14th centy. Moscow became the capital of Muscovy; Kief, and afterwards Vladimir, having till then enjoyed that distinction. In the early part of the reign of Basil II. it was taken and ravaged by Tamerlane; and later it fell again into the hands of the Tartars, who sacked and put many of the inhabitants to the sword. In 1536 the town was nearly consumed by fire, in which 2000 of the inhabitants perished. In 1572 the Tartars fired the suburbs, and, a furious wind driving the flames into the city, a considerable portion of it was reduced to ashes, and no fewer than 100,000 persons perished in the flames or by the sword. In 1611 a great portion of the city was again destroyed by fire, when the Poles had taken possession of it, under the pretence of defending the inhabitants from the adherents of a pretender to the crown. The plague of 1771 diminished the population by several thousands, a decrease from which it has never recovered. And, lastly, in 1812, the Muscovites gave up their ancient, holy, and beautiful city to the devouring element—the grandest sacrifice ever made to national feeling. The city was the idol of every Russian's heart, her shrines were to him the holiest in the empire—hallowed by seven centuries of historical associations.

But we have to describe the city as it is, rather than to revert to Russian history. The assertion sometimes made, that no city is so irregularly built as Moscow, is in some respects true; none of the streets are straight; houses large and small, public buildings, churches, and other edifices are mingled confusedly together; but it gains by this the advantage of being more picturesque. The streets undulate continually, and thus offer from time to time points of view whence the eye is able to range over the vast ocean of house-tops, trees, and gilded and coloured domes. The profusion of churches, 370 in number, is a characteristic feature of the city. But the architecture of Moscow, since the conflagration of 1812, is not quite so bizarre as, according to the accounts of travellers, it was before that event; nevertheless it is still singular enough. In 1813 the point chiefly in view was to build, and build quickly, rather than to carry any certain plan into execution; the houses were replaced with nearly the same irregularity with respect to each other, and the streets

became as crooked and tortuous as before. The whole gained, therefore, little in regularity from the fire, but each individual house was built in much better taste, gardens became more frequent, the majority of roofs were made of iron painted green, a lavish use was made of pillars, and even those who could not be profuse erected more elegant cottages.

Hence Moscow has all the charms of a new city, with the pleasing negligence and picturesque irregularity of an old one. In the streets we come now to a large magnificent palace, with all the pomp of Corinthian pillars, wrought-iron trellis-work, and magnificent approaches and gateways; and now to a simple whitewashed house, the abode of a modest citizen's family. Near them stands a small ch., with green cupolas and golden stars. Then comes a row of little yellow wooden houses, and these are succeeded by one of the new colossal public institutions. Sometimes the road winds through a number of little streets, and the traveller might fancy himself in a country town; suddenly it rises, and he is in a wide "place," from which streets branch off on all sides, while the eye wanders over the forest of houses of the great capital; descending again, he comes in the middle of the town to the banks of the river. The circumvallation of the city is upwards of 20 English miles in extent, of a most irregular form, more resembling a trapezium than any other figure; within this are 2 nearly concentric circular lines of boulevards, the sites of former fortifications, the one at a distance of about 1½ m. from the Kremlin, completed on both sides of the Moskva; the internal one, once the moat of the Kremlin and Kitai Gorod, with a radius of about a mile, spreading only on the north of the river, and terminating near the stone bridge on the one side, and the Foundling Hospital on the other. The river enters the barrier of the vast city to which it has given a name about the central point of the western side; and after winding round the Devichi convent like a serpent, and from thence flowing beneath the battlements of the Kremlin, and receiving the scanty stream of the Jaousa, issues again into the vast plain, till it meets the Oka, a tributary of the mighty Volga, which it joins at Nijni Novgorod.

On the N. of the Moskva, streets and houses, in regular succession, reach to the very barrier; and though a vast proportion of ground is left unoccupied, owing to the enormous width of the streets and boulevards, the earthen rampart may truly be said to gird in the city. But in the other quarters, and particularly to the S., Moscow can hardly be said to extend further than the outward boulevard.

The centre of this vast collection of buildings is the Kremlin, which forms nearly a triangle of about 2 Eng. m. in extent. On the E. comes the Kitai Gorod (Chinese city),* which still preserves its ancient fence of towers and buttresses. Encircling these 2 divisions, and itself bounded by the river and inner boulevard, lies the Beloi Gorod (white city). The space enclosed between the 2 circles to the N. of the Moskva, and between the river and the outward boulevard on the S., is called the Zemlianoi Gorod. Beyond the boulevards are the suburbs.

Before entering the Kremlin it will be well to view it from one or two points on the outside, and the most favourable spot for this purpose, on the S. side, is the stone bridge across the Moskva; from the river that washes its base the hill of the Kremlin rises, picturesquely adorned with turf and shrubs. The buildings appear set in a rich frame of water, verdant foliage, and snowy wall, the majestic column of Ivan Veliki rearing itself high above all, like the axis round which the whole moves. The colours are everywhere most lively—red, white, green, gold, and silver. Amidst the confusion of the numerous small antique edifices, the Bolshoi Dvorets (the large palace built by Nicholas) has an imposing aspect.

It is time, however, to reduce the

* Several Russian towns have a "Chinese city," just as Calcutta has its "China bazaar."

sights of Moscow to some kind of order. Assuming that the traveller's first object will be to see the Kremlin, the following particulars may be read on the spot:—

Kremlin.—Russian archæologists are unable to trace the name of the Kremlin to any certain source. It is by most supposed to be derived from the Russian word *Kremen* or *silex*, but it occurs for the first time in its present form in the year 1446. Originally part of the site now occupied by it was enclosed by walls of oak. Demetrius of the Don laid the foundation of stone walls in 1367, which resisted the Tartars on several occasions, and were only seized by Toktamysh through treachery. In 1445 the Kremlin was burnt, and the walls and gates partly destroyed. The introduction of artillery rendered the old walls, although repaired, no longer safe against invaders. John III. invited Italians to build new fortifications of stone, which were accordingly erected between the years 1485 and 1492, and subsequently extended and strengthened. These walls alone escaped the ravages of a fire that destroyed the whole of the Kremlin in 1737. They are now 7280 ft. in circumference, and pierced by 5 gates, the principal of which, the Spaski or "Redeemer" Gate, nearest the ch. of St. Basil, was built by Peter Solarius, a Milanese, in 1491. Christopher Galloway, an English clockmaker, built the tower in 1626, and placed a clock in it, which was, however, later replaced by another. Hence the style of the tower is Gothic, and out of keeping with the Italian battlements: it is the *Porta Sacra* and *Porta Triumphalis* of Moscow. Over it is a picture of the Redeemer of Smolensk, held in high veneration by the orthodox. An omission to uncover the head while passing under this gate was anciently punishable with 50 compulsory prostrations. The traveller should not fail to pay the respect to old traditions here exacted, since the Emperor himself conforms to the custom. Criminals executed in front of this gate offered their last prayers on earth to the image of the Redeemer of Smolensk, which also witnessed the execution of the Streltsi by order of Peter the Great. In his reign the sectaries who refused to shave their beards paid a fine in passing through this gate.

The next gate in importance alongside the Spaski Vorota is the Nikolsky or Nicholas Gate. The miraculous image of St. Nicholas of Mojaisk, "the dread of perjurers and the comforter of suffering humanity," is suspended over it. Oaths were anciently administered to litigants in front of this venerated image. The tower was originally built in 1491 by an Italian architect, but has, like the other buildings of the Kremlin, been restored after successive disasters. The troops of Tokhtamysh, of Sigismund III., and of Napoleon, passed through this gate within 4 centuries. In 1408 it witnessed the siege of Moscow by Edigei, in 1551 the invasion by the Crim Tartars, and in 1611-12 the battles between the Poles and the Russians for the possession of Holy Moscow. It was also partly destroyed by orders of Napoleon, when it escaped with only a rent which split the tower in the middle as far as the frame of the picture; but not even the glass of the picture, nor even that of the lamp suspended before it, is said to have been injured. An inscription to that effect was placed over the gate by order of Alexander I.

A gate near the western extremity of the Kremlin wall is called the Troitski or Trinity Gate. Its tower was likewise built by Christopher Galloway in the early part of the 17th centy.; restored in 1759, and after the conflagration in 1812. The French both entered and left the Kremlin by this gate. Before that invasion the buildings in the vicinity afforded a refuge for vagrants, thieves, and murderers, who kept the inhabitants in great terror.

The last gate on the E. is called the Borovitski. Its tower is curious. Having penetrated the Kremlin by one of these gates, the visitor will proceed to inspect the many interesting buildings and objects which it contains.

These are as follows, in the order in which they should be seen :—

1. *The Tower of Ivan Veliki (John the Great).*—This remarkable structure should be ascended first. Tradition points to a very remote origin, but historical facts assert that the tower was built in the year 1600 by the Tsar Boris Godunoff. It consists of 5 stories, 4 being octangular and the last cylindrical, the whole rising to a height of about 325 ft. including the cross. The basement is occupied by a chapel dedicated to St. John of the Ladder, of which, in fact, the tower is the *Campanile*. In the next 3 stories are suspended 34 bells of various sizes and tones. The largest, named the "Assumption," hangs in the first tier above the chapel, and weighs 64 tons, being, therefore, five times as heavy as the famous bell of Erfurt, and four times that of Rouen. It was recast after the partial destruction of the tower in 1812. The chapel below this part of the tower is dedicated to a St. Nicholas, who is the patron of all ladies about to marry. The most ancient of the other bells bears the date of 1550. The Veché bell of the Great Novgorod was once suspended in this tower; but all trace of it is lost. In the highest tier are 2 small silver bells of exquisite tone. The ringing of all these bells on Easter eve produces a most wonderful effect. Here the traveller pauses to behold the panorama of Moscow. The view from the summit is certainly one of the most striking and unique in Europe.

The *custode*, who will ascend with the traveller, will expect a fee. It is advisable to retain the services of one of the men at the foot of the tower for the rest of the sights within the Kremlin, making him a present of 50 copecks at parting.

2. *Great Bell*, "Tsar Kolokol," Tsar of Bells.—This lies at the foot of the tower. The art of casting bells was known in Russia in the 14th centy., but was only brought to perfection in the 16th, when the first large bell was cast at Moscow (1553), which weighed 36,000 lbs., and was suspended in a wooden tower. A Polish traveller, in 1611, relates having seen a huge bell, of which the clapper was moved by 24 men. Olearius, Secretary of a Dutch Embassy to Moscow, asserts that the Great Bell was cast in the reign of Boris Godunoff. During a fire in the reign of Alexis, this bell fell to the ground and was broken. In 1654 it was recast, and weighed 288,000 lbs. Its circumference was 54 ft., and its thickness 2 ft. In 1674 it was suspended from a wooden beam at the foot of the tower, from whence it fell on the 19th June, 1706, during a fire. Its fragments lay on the ground until the reign of the Empress Anne, by whose orders it was recast in 1733. By the falling of some heavy rafters during another fire in 1737, the side of the bell was knocked out, and it remained buried in the ground until the year 1836, when it was placed on its present pedestal by order of the Emperor Nicholas. Its weight at present is 444,000 lbs., its height 19 ft. 3 in., and its circumference 60 ft. 9 in. Its thickness is 2 ft., and the weight of the broken piece is 700 pouds, or about 11 tons. The figures in relief are those of the Tsar Alexis and the Empress Anne, and on the scroll below is a representation of the Saviour, the Holy Virgin, and the Evangelists, surrounded by cherubims. The inscription gives the above facts.

3. *The Palace.*—The ancient habitations of the rulers of Moscow were of wood, with the exception of the Granovitaya Palata, built by an Italian architect in 1484, and still extant. Frequent conflagrations, Tartar inroads, and a Polish occupation destroyed the old Courts of the Grand Dukes and Tsars. On the transfer of the capital to St. Petersburg, the Kremlin was definitively deserted as a royal residence. The fire of 1737, which consumed everything that was ancient in Moscow, obliterated all traces of the buildings constructed by the first sovereigns of the Romanoff dynasty, leaving only the stone basements on which the structures now seen have since been reared. The Empress Anne

built a palace on their site in the style of the period, but this again made way for the gigantic palace designed by the Empress Catherine II., now exhibited in the Treasury as a model, and the construction of which was soon abandoned. The French burned the palace facing the river which the Empress Catherine had rebuilt, and which the Emperor Napoleon occupied; and between 1838 and 1849 it was entirely removed and replaced by the present palace, which is therefore only a monument of the reign of Nicholas I.

The *Bolshoi Dvorets*, or Large Palace, is very lofty compared with its frontage, and its style is an odd mixture of different periods and forms of architecture. The incongruity of the exterior is, however, more than atoned for by the great beauty and grandeur of the apartments within.

The exhibition of this Handbook will be a sufficient introduction to the porter in scarlet, who will detach one of the Imperial servants on the duty of showing the palace. The vestibule is supported by handsome monoliths of grey marble. Beginning on the l. with the First-floor, which consists of the dwelling-rooms of the Emperor and Empress, the apartments occur in the following order:—1. Dining-room. 2. Empress's Drawing-room; white silk, and gold mouldings. 3. Attendants' room. 4. Empress' Cabinet; dark-red silk, and buhl doors. 5. Room for Lady-in-Waiting. 6. Empress' Dressing and Bath-room; malachite mantelpiece. 7. Bedroom. 8. Emperor's Dressing and Bath-room. 9. Emperor's Cabinet; the pictures represent the French entering and leaving Moscow, and the battles of Borodino and Smolensk; bronze equestrian statuette of Napoleon. 10. Attendants' room. 11. Regimental Standard-room. 12. Attendants' room.

Visitors will now be led back to the Vestibule, and shown, in a small room on the l., a machine for lifting the Empress to her apartments upstairs. Ascending a handsome granite staircase, with walls of scagliola, he will be taken to see the State Apartments. The large picture in the gallery round the top of the staircase, painted in 1850 by Yvon, a French artist, represents the battle of Kulikova, or the victory over the Tartars gained by Dmitry of the Don. The huge crystal vases at the door are from the Imperial Glass Works at St. Petersburg, as also are the other vases and candelabra, which will be shown inside. Passing through an ante-chamber, the traveller will find himself in a magnificent Hall dedicated to the Military Order of St. George, founded by Catherine II., in 1769. It measures 200 ft. by 68 ft.; height 58 ft. The names of the individuals and regiments decorated with the Order since its foundation are inscribed on the walls in letters of gold. The capitals of the columns (which are of zinc) are surmounted by Victories bearing shields, on which are inscribed the dates of the several conquests of Russia, beginning with that of Perm, in 1472, and ending with the annexation of Armenia, in 1828. On the shields are likewise the arms of the conquered provinces. The name of the Emperor Alexander II. is inscribed on a marble tablet to the left, near a window which looks out on the terrace. H.I.M. won the Cross of St. George of the 4th class in the Caucasus. The regiments thus honoured are 545 in number. The furniture is black and orange, the colours of the Order. Ask to see the view from the balcony which opens out of this hall.

2. Gorgeous hall, pink and gold, dedicated to Order of St. Alexander Nevsky, founded 1725. Its length is 103 ft. by 68 ft., and its extreme height 68 ft. Here are placed 6 pictures by Prof. Moller, portraying the principal deeds of the Patron Saint:—i. The Cardinals sent by Pope Innocent IV., endeavouring to persuade St. Alexander Nevsky to join the Latin Church. ii. His marriage with Alexandra, daughter of the Prince of Polotsk. iii. Alexander in the Camp of the Tartars, bringing gifts. He is required to bow to idols, and to pass between 2 fires, but refuses. iv. Triumphal entry into Pskof, delivered from the Livonian Knights. v. A

dream is being told the Prince, in which the Divine aid is promised in the approaching battle with the Swedes. vi. Battle with the Swedes on the banks of the Neva. Alexander fighting with the son-in-law of the King of Sweden and smiting him in the face with his lance.

3. Hall of St. Andrew, the senior order of knighthood, established by Peter I., 1698; the arms of the provinces of Russia appear on the walls, which are hung with blue silk, the colour of the riband. Emperor's throne; length of the hall 160 ft. by 68 ft.; height 58 ft. This splendid hall is lighted at night by 2095 candles. 4. Guard-room. 5. Hall of Order of St. Catherine, a female distinction, conferred by the Empress, who is sovereign of the order, and whose throne stands in the hall; founded 1714 in commemoration of the deliverance by Catherine of Peter I. from the Turks on the Pruth, 1711. 6. State Drawing-room; green brocade. 7. State Bedroom; white brocade; 2 pilasters of vert antique in mosaic-work; mantelpiece of jasper. 8. State Dressing and Bath-room. Descending a few steps, the visitor will be shown a small chapel, and then, through a pretty winter-garden, to the apartments occupied by members of the Imperial family. 1. Anteroom. 2. Dining-room, hung with fine old tapestry representing the life of Don Quixote. The tables, lustres, and looking-glass frames of silver, of the period of the Empress Anne. A small model of the monument at Novgorod. The 7th and 8th rooms alone present some interest, as they contain some fine sepia copies of *Raphael*, *Correggio*, and *Guido Reni*, by *Zeidelmann* of Dresden.

The Picture Gallery comes next. The only pictures worthy of notice are the six that have been brought here from the royal castle of Warsaw, all painted by *Bacciarelli*. 180. Peace at Khotin between Turkey and Poland. 149. John Sobieski raising the siege of Vienna by the Turks, 1683. 124. Union of Lithuania with Poland, at Lublin. 92. Oath of the Voevod Gabriel Baizen of Lithuania to Casimir Jagellon. 66. Restoration of Academy of Cracow by Ladislaus Jagellon. 35. Promulgation of Statute (1347) by Casimir the Great. Returning through the garden, the visitor will be led along a gallery into which open the windows of the apartments allotted to the maids of honour of H.I.M.

The Zolotaya Palata, or Gold Court, is at the end of this gallery. A much larger room of the kind existed in the ancient residence of the Tsars. It was the Audience-chamber and Banqueting-room. The "Gold Court" here shown is supposed to have been the state-apartment of the consorts of the first sovereigns of the reigning house. It was renovated at the coronation of the Emperor Paul, and again during the reign of Nicholas, in the style of the 17th centy.-copied from old drawings. The recesses, which look like seats, are supposed to have held the gold and silver plate of the Tsars. The Hall with the high pointed roof is dedicated to the Order of St. Vladimir (founded 1782), and is consequently hung with black and red silk. The flight of steps at the end of this hall, called the "Red (or Beautiful) Staircase," is only used on important state occasions, when the Emperor goes to the Cathedral of the Assumption. From the top of these stairs the Tsars of old allowed the populace to see "the light of their eyes." Here John the Terrible gazed at the comet that seemed to foretel his speedy end; and it was here also that he committed the inhuman act of transfixing with his pointed staff the foot of the trusty messenger and friend of Prince Kurbski, a valiant leader of his armies, who, in the apprehension of unmerited punishment and death, abandoned his wife and fled to the Polish camp at Wolmar, whence he wrote to the Tsar setting forth the crimes and atrocities of his reign. The tyrant rested on his staff while the letter was read by his commands, the messenger meanwhile standing motionless and silent. From

the Red Staircase the mangled body of the false Demetrius was thrown down in the court below by the infuriated people of Moscow in 1606; and it was from the same steps that the rebel Streltsi, in 1682, tore the obnoxious Boyar Matveyeff, and cut him to pieces before the eyes of the terrified mother of Peter the Great, together with numerous other noblemen and adherents of the Court. By these steps also, Napoleon, followed by his Marshals, ascended to take possession of the palace of the Kremlin.

The *Granovitaya Palata*, or Banqueting-room, will be viewed next. An inscription over the door sets forth that it was built by John III., who married Sophia Paleologus, and restored by Nicholas I. It is a vaulted apartment with arches resting on a column in the centre of the room, and round which the Imperial plate is displayed. Here the Emperor sits enthroned after the ceremony in the Cathedral, adorned for the first time with all the Imperial insignia, and dines amidst his nobles; crowned heads being alone seated at the same table with him. Opposite the throne, near the ceiling, is a window, which was in olden days occupied by the members of the Imperial family during the coronation banquet, their presence below being excluded by etiquette.

The visitor now comes to a very interesting part of the palace—the *Terem*, anciently devoted to the Tsarevna and her children. The building consists of 4 stories, which gradually diminish till the upper floor is so small as only to contain 1 room. The 2 lower stories, used as magazines, were built in the early part of the 16th centy., but the 2 upper were added in 1636 by Michael Fedorowitch. The entire building was restored 1836–1849. Ascending the curious carved stone staircase, the first room reached is the Dining-room; the presses contain the old seals of the empire. 2. Reception-room; bronze casket, containing old charters of the reign of Alexis. 3. Throne-room of Alexis; seals of sovereigns; gold seal of John the Terrible, in a small open box in press, l. of door; bronze casket containing act of election of Michael Romanoff to throne of Muscovy. 4. Bedroom. 5. Oratory; copy of the Evangelists on parchment of 14th centy. The room above is called the Council Chamber of the Boyars. Visitors should go out on the gallery that runs round the outside of this building, and admire the view. A door under the staircase of the Terem leads to a suite of rooms where old charters are kept. These can only be seen by special permission. Alexis, and subsequently his sons Theodore and John, were brought up in the Terem. Peter the Great sometimes occupied it before his first journey to foreign countries, and its last occupant was the unfortunate Alexis, son of Peter.

The guide should receive a fee, as well as the porter, for taking care of coats, sticks, and umbrellas.

4. *The Treasury* (*Oruzheinaya Pálata*).*—This building, erected in 1851, forms the right wing of the Palace, and contains a collection very similar in subjects to that of the Tower of London. The Treasury of Moscow was anciently, and still remains, the depository of venerated historical objects, and of treasures hereditary in the reigning house. The geographical position of Russia, and her ancient commercial intercourse with India, Persia, Armenia, and Greece, gave her princes and boyars the widest opportunities for the acquisition of wealth. The arts, first of the East, and later of the West, found munificent patrons at the court of Moscow. The interchange of presents on the occasion of alliances, embassies, or the conclusion of peace, continued to the time when Russia was no longer considered an Asiatic power, increased the store of riches in the shape of plate, precious stones, and costly manufactures of different kinds, which in those primitive days were the principal representatives of wealth. The churches, in the same manner, were more frequently endowed with

* The Treasury is only open on Mondays and Thursdays, between 11 and 3. Tickets at the Chamberlain's office in the Senate, within the Kremlin.

pearls, diamonds, and rubies than with lands or ducats. The splendour of the Tsar's court, like that of his nobles, was manifested in a gorgeous magnificence and profusion in the absence of a more refined civilization. The riches thus amassed were naturally subject to political vicissitudes. In 1611 and 1612 the Council of Boyars, during an interregnum, supported the troops of Poland and Lithuania within the walls of the Kremlin on the produce of a considerable quantity of plate converted into money. The favourites of the Tsar received frequent marks of approbation in the shape of vessels of gold and silver. A fire in 1737 destroyed many historical objects, and amongst them all the colours taken from the Swedes at the battle of Poltava. Later the sovereigns of Russia transferred their capital, and more than once removed their household gods from one palace to another. During the French invasion they were conveyed to Nijni-Novgorod. They were thus frequently dispersed and partially reunited, and there now remains in the Treasury of Moscow the collection, still considerable, to which the visitor is introduced.

The hall and staircase are adorned with trophies of arms, principally German. The large bell, a sort of tocsin, bearing the date of 1714, when it was recast, anciently rang out alarms of fire, and of other public dangers to the citizens of Moscow.

The first room at the top of the staircase is devoted to specimens of old Russian armour, both of man and horse, and the appropriate weapons of steel.

The second room is full of old Russian fire-arms, arranged chronologically, and dating from the 15th to the 18th centy. The matchlocks and muskets to the left are all of native manufacture. The fowling-pieces are inscribed as having been presented to the Tsar Michael in 1614, by Fabian Smith, an Englishman. They are near the door on the l. The standards of the Tsars of Moscovia, and of their military households, are grouped round the pillars by which the vaulted roof of the room is supported. The most interesting colours will be found at the second pillar. Here are the colours of Peter's unruly Streltsi. Nos. 3697 and 3698, bearing the lion and the unicorn, were carried by the Cossack Yermak to the conquest of Siberia. No. 3699 was unfurled as long ago as the early part of the 17th centy. at the fort of Albazin, on the Amur, by a small body of adventurous Cossacks, who settled on that river, but were subsequently driven out by the Chinese. The standard of Ivan the Terrible, planted at Kazan in 1552, will be found near the first window on the l., and is numbered 3752.

Here are also numerous trophies taken from the Swedes, and amongst them the sword of Charles XII., his spurs, and the litter in which he was borne at the battle of Poltava.

The walls of the third room are hung with original portraits of the Romanoff family. The coronation chair on the l. is that of the Empress Elizabeth; the chairs on the rt. were occupied by Paul I., Alexander II., and their consorts, as the visitor may perceive from the ciphers on them. The Emperor and Empress walk at their coronation under the *baldachino* in the centre of the room. The traveller will pause at the stand of colours at the furthest end of this hall, to the rt. of the door, while he reads the following translation of the printed inscription in Russian characters, composed by the Emperor Nicholas himself:—"Alexander I., the benefactor of Poland, gave these colours to his Polish army. Magnanimity was responded to by treason; the brave, faithful Russian army took these colours back, after storming Warsaw and sparing its inhabitants, 25 and 26 August, 1831." The constitution granted by Alexander I. to his Polish subjects lies in the small black box immediately under the inscription.

The glass case on the l. contains the arms taken from the Polish general Rzewuski. A blade bears the name of Stanislaus Augustus, and the date of 1764.

The room on the rt. contains many of the most interesting relics of Rus-

sian sovereignty. To the l. on entering stands the throne of Poland, removed in 1833 from the throne-room of the Royal Palace at Warsaw. It was used at the coronation of Nicholas I. as King of Poland. The cipher M. is the initial of his name in Polish (Mikolay). The insignia of Alexis, and of his sons John and Peter, are on stands close by. The ivory throne was brought from Constantinople by Sophia Palæologus in 1472, on her marriage with John III. The carving represents the labours of Orpheus and the legend of Thrace, but several of the original panels were replaced in 1642 by others with inappropriate subjects. It was, moreover, restored in 1856 for the coronation of Alexander II. The throne alongside came from Persia in 1660, and was used by the Tsar Alexis. It is studded with 876 diamonds and 1223 rubies, besides turquoises and pearls. The orb opposite these thrones is of great historical importance. It was sent to Vladimir Monomachus, Prince of Kief, by the Greek Emperors Basilius and Constantine, together with a crown, a collar of enamel and precious stones, and a chair, with a piece of the true cross. It is most splendidly studded with 58 diamonds, 89 rubies, 23 sapphires, 50 emeralds, and 37 pearls. The coloured enamels are in the most beautiful style of Greek art, and represent the principal episodes in the life of David. The four symbolical figures of Byzantium, the eagle, the lion, the griffin, and the unicorn, divide the several images or enamelled plates.

The wardrobe next the throne brings very different recollections. The first object in it is a masquerade dress of Catherine I. Alongside this are her coronation robes, the military dress of Peter II., and other specimens of wearing apparel. The boots of Peter I. and Paul I. stand on either side of the wardrobe. The next throne is that of Michael. Opposite to it stands the crown of the kingdom of Kazan. It belonged to Simeon, crowned Tsar of Kazan, and converted to Christianity by John the Terrible in 1553. It is surmounted by a topaz, and adorned with rubies, turquoises, and pearls. The crown on the next stand was made for Michael by Russian artizans. It is richly ornamented with enamel-work, and surmounted by a large emerald. There are 190 other precious stones round it. The second glass case contains the coronation robes of the Emperor Alexander II. and his Empress. The throne of Boris Godunof comes next. It was the gift of Abbas Shah of Persia, in 1604, and is studded with very large turquoises and innumerable rubies and pearls. The crown of John, brother of Peter I., is on the next stand. It is in the shape of a mitre, or pyramidal cap of maintenance, surmounted by a diamond cross, rising from a ruby. The diamonds with which this magnificent crown is ornamented are 900 in number. The orb alongside was made at Constantinople for Alexis in 1662. The green enamel is profusely studded with diamonds and eight large sapphires. In the wardrobe opposite hang the coronation robes of the Empresses Anne and Catherine II. The double throne of *Vermeil* was made for the coronation of John and Peter. The usual Byzantine emblems will be observed. The crowns of those sovereigns lie opposite. The costliest crown is that of the Empress Anne, originally made for Catherine I. by order of Peter the Great, the diamonds in it, alone, being 2536 in number; but the jewel of most value in it is the ruby, purchased at Pekin in 1676 by the Ambassador of Alexis. The throne of Paul completes the collection. In the last wardrobe are the coronation robes of Paul, Alexander I., and Nicholas I., with those of their consorts. In the glass case in the centre of the room the visitor will find the Order of the Garter, and the patent for it, sent to John the Terrible by Queen Elizabeth.

A casket in this room contains the "Ulojenié," or Code of the Tsar Alexis (1649), written on sheets of parchment measuring together 368 yards.

It is impossible, however, to particularise all the other treasures of this most interesting room, and we must close our description of it by directing

the attention of the visitor to the Staff or walking-stick of John the Terrible, with the sharp point of which the Tsar was in the habit of transfixing the feet of those with whom he was displeased. It was with the blow of a similar stick that he killed his eldest son. The staff of fish-bone was the gift of Pope Gregory XIII.

The fourth, or last room upstairs, is full of stands groaning with the richest and most curious articles of plate. Some of the objects here exhibited are of great antiquity,—a cup of silver bearing an inscription of the 12th centy. Every domestic vessel has a specimen in this collection, and their forms will be studied with interest by the lovers of art. The work of nearly every country in Europe meets the eye. Our own silversmiths have contributed many articles presented to the Tsar by the ambassadors of James I., Charles I., and Charles II. Two jugs of chased silver, two vases of *vermeil*, the covers surmounted by a cavalier armed with a lance, a ewer weighing 24 lbs., two large jugs, two candlesticks, and four dishes, all of silver, were brought by the Earl of Carlisle, ambassador of Charles II. For a detailed description of the plate *vide* 'Le Trésor de Moscou, 1861,' to be purchased at the door.

Returning down stairs, the visitor will be shown some rooms on the rt., containing amongst other things the following remarkable objects :—

In the first room is an immense model of a palace which Catherine II. proposed to construct within the Kremlin, and of which the first stone was actually laid in 1773. A theatre, in the shape of the Coliseum at Rome, was to have been erected near the holy gate of the Saviour. The traveller may congratulate the Muscovite on the plan of such a building having been abandoned. The small field-pieces were cast at Tabreez during its occupation by Russian troops in 1827.

In the second room will be found portraits of kings of Poland, and of Polish men of eminence, together with 22 busts of Zamoiskis, Sapiehas, Wielopolskis, and other illustrious Poles.

The old carriages of the court of Moscow fill the next and last room. The large vehicle on the right was presented, together with eight horses, by Queen Elizabeth to the Tsar Boris Godunoff. The panels are painted with allegorical allusions to a crusade which the Tsar had proposed to make against the Turks, and in which our Queen declined to join. The miniature carriage with panes of mica belonged to Peter I. when a child. Another large carriage on the right belonged to the Empress Elizabeth. The panels are painted in the style of Watteau. The carriage on runners, with a table and benches covered with green cloth, was used by the Empress Elizabeth on her journeys between St. Petersburg and Moscow. The first large carriage on the left, lined with crimson velvet, was made for the Patriarch Philaret. Two camp bedsteads which belonged to Napoleon, and were taken at the Berezina, stand at the upper end of the room. The cases along the walls and pillars are full of saddles and horse-trappings, dating from the 17th cent.

5. The *Maloi or Nicolaefski Dvorets*, or Little Palace, facing the Great Bell, is scarcely worthy of a visit. Originally built by Catherine, it was the residence of the Metropolitan Platon, who presented it, in 1817, to the Emperor Nicholas. The Emperor Alexander II. was born here. The furniture and arrangements are of the simplest kind. In the Dining-room is a picture by *Canaletto*, "Election of Stanislaus Augustus by the Diet of Warsaw in 1764." There are 2 other pictures, by a native artist, illustrative of the merits of Minin and Pojarski. In the next room are 2 pictures by *Aivazowski*, the marine painter, "the Burning of Moscow," and "the Temple of the Saviour," now in course of erection. There is a Polish standard in the 3rd room.

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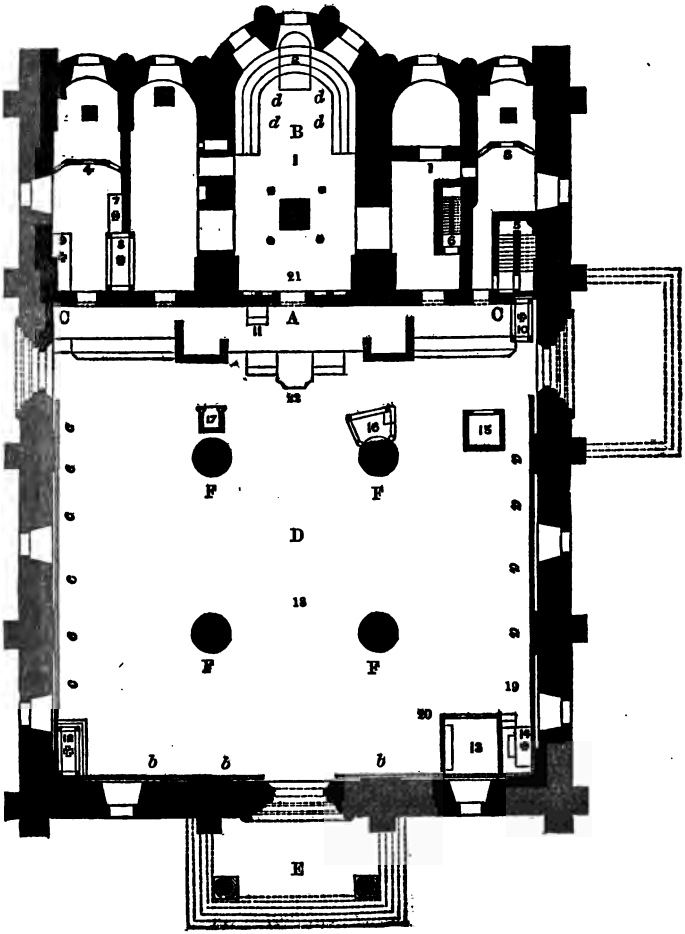
PLAN OF THE CATHEDRAL OF THE ASSUMPTION AT MOSCOW.



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EXPLANATION OF REFERENCES.

A. "Iconastasis," or Screen for the Sacred Pictures.
B. "Bema," or Sanctuary.
C. C. "Soleas," or Choir.
D. Nave.
E. "Proaulion," or Porch.
F. F. F. F. Columns.

1. Principal altar.
2. Throne of the Archbishop, Metropolitan, or Patriarch of Moscow.
3. Side altar, dedicated to S. Demetrius of Thessalonica.
4. Side altar, dedicated to SS. Peter and Paul.
   These two side altars are separate pieces of the one chief altar; but placed here to allow of access to them without passing through the Sanctuary.
5. Stairs leading to "the Chapel of the Blessed Virgin" in the cupola, where the election of the Patriarchs took place.
6. Stairs leading to the Sacristy, containing the relics and curiosities of the Church.
7. Tomb of S. Theognostus, } Metropolitans.
8. Tomb of S. Peter, }
9. Shrine, containing sacred relics.
10. Tomb of S. Philip, Metropolitan.
11. Sacred Picture of our Lady of Vladimir.
12. Tomb of S. Jonah, Metropolitan.
13. Tabernacle over "the Holy Tunic," presented to the Church by Philaret, Patriarch.
14. Tombs of SS. Photius and Cyprian.
15. The ancient throne of the Tsar (called "of Vladimir Monomachus").
16. Throne of the Patriarch.
17. Throne of the Empress.
18. Place of the platform on which the Emperor is crowned.
19. Tomb of Philaret, Patriarch.
20. Tomb of Hermogenes, Patriarch.
21. Royal doors.
22. Platform in front of the choir.

a. a. a. a. Pictures of the Seven Councils.
b. b. b. Pictures of the Last Judgment.
c. c. c. c. c. c. Pictures of the Life and Death of the Virgin.
d. d. d. d. Pictures of the Patriarchs and Fathers of the Church.

The Pictures on the Altar Screen (A) *are thus arranged.*

1. The highest compartment, the Patriarchs ranged on each side of the Eternal Father.
2. The Prophets leaning towards the Virgin and Son.
3. Minute representations of the life of the Saviour.
4. Angels and Apostles on each side of the Saviour.
5. The Sacred Pictures or Icons:
   (*a*) "The Blessed Virgin," brought by Vladimir from Khersonesus.
   (*b*) "The Saviour," sent by the Emperor Manuel.
   (*c*) "Repose of the Blessed Virgin," painted by Peter the Metropolitan.

On the doors ("the Royal Doors," so called because the Tsar or Emperor passes through them on the day of his coronation) are painted the Four Evangelists, to represent that through this entrance come the glad tidings of the Eucharist. On each side of the doors are represented (in ancient churches) Adam and the Penitent Thief, as the first fallen and the first redeemed. On the farther compartments are represented the Virgin and the Forerunner (the Baptist), and at the northern corner the Saint to whom the Church is dedicated.

On each side of the entrance to the Nave are (sometimes) represented the Publican and the Pharisee, as the two opposite types of worshipers. Where the Porch is extended, it contains the Pagan Philosophers and Poets, each with a scroll in his hand containing a sentence anticipatory of the Gospel.

The south side of the church is always occupied by the Seven Councils; the north side either by the life of the Patron Saint of the Church (in the Uspensky Church, of the Virgin) or by the Parables. In the Donskoi Church all the events of the Old and New Testaments are represented.

The columns are painted with the figures of martyrs.

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CATHEDRALS.

6. *Uspenski Sobor. Cathedral of the Assumption.*—This sacred edifice was formerly called the Patriarchal Cathedral, but is now known as the Church of the Assumption, or Repose of the Virgin. The emperors are crowned in it, and the patriarchs formerly officiated there. The site was originally occupied by a church built in 1325 by the Metropolitan Peter, when it became the place of sepulture of the Patriarchs, just as the church dedicated to St. Michael, in the immediate vicinity, and founded at the same time, was destined to receive the remains of the sovereigns of Russia; but it was reconstructed between 1475-1479 by Aristotle Fioraventi of Bologna, with the assistance of native artists, after the model of the cathedral at Vladimir. It is solidly built, the foundations being about 14 ft. deep, and the walls and vaults were considerably strengthened in 1626. The domes were only covered with copper-gilt plates in 1684. But, notwithstanding these alterations, and others which were made after the great fire of 1737, the Cathedral of the Assumption retains almost entirely its primitive form, and is therefore one of the most interesting Christian monuments in Russia.

The architectural arrangements (a mixture of the Byzantine and Lombard) and the ornamentation are all minutely symbolical, and will therefore well repay a careful study of the plan here annexed, taken from Dean Stanley's work on the Eastern Church. "It is in dimensions," says that learned authority, "what in the West would be called a chapel rather than a cathedral. But it is so fraught with recollections, so teeming with worshippers, so bursting with tombs and pictures from the pavement to the cupola, that its smallness of space is forgotten in the fullness of its contents. On the platform of its nave, from Ivan the Terrible downwards to this day, the Tsars have been crowned. Along its altar-screen are deposited the most sacred pictures of Russia; that, painted by the Metropolitan Peter; this, sent by the Greek Emperor Manuel; that, brought by Vladimir from Kherson. High in the cupola is the chapel, where, as at the summit of the Russian Church, the Russian primates were elected. . . . Round the walls are buried the primates of the Church; at the four corners—here, as in all Oriental buildings, the place of honour—lie those most highly venerated."

St. Peter, the first Metropolitan of Moscow, lies in a small chapel on the left side of the Ikonostas, where some sacred relics are likewise exhibited to the faithful, such as a nail of the true cross, and a portion of the robe of our Saviour. A picture in the Ikonostas—that of the Holy Virgin of Vladimir—will be pointed out as having been painted by St. Luke. The jewels with which it is adorned are valued at 45,000*l.*, the emerald alone being worth 10,000*l.* It is one of the most ancient images in Russia, and is painted on a composition of wax. The silver shrine of St. Philip, Metropolitan between 1566 and 1569, which stands conspicuous on the right "wing" of the Ikonostas, is an object of more than ordinary interest in connexion with the ecclesiastical history of Russia.

Philip was a prelate, bold enough to rebuke Ivan the Terrible for his inhuman cruelties. The Tsar had just caused many of his nobles to be put to death, and, surrounded by his Oprichniks (a band of lawless adherents who replaced his ancient nobles at the court), had devastated numerous villages in the neighbourhood of Moscow. The people entreated the Metropolitan to intercede for them, but he long hesitated, having given a covenant, prior to his election, that he would not interfere with the Tsar's household. But, having contracted a fourth marriage against the canons of the church, Ivan was placed to a certain extent beyond its pale, and prohibited by the Metropolitan from assisting at mass, although he might listen to the Church service from outside its walls. He neverthe-

less appeared one day in the body of the cathedral, accompanied by a crowd of his obnoxious followers. Philip continued to pray as if he were unconscious of the Tsar's presence. "The Tsar demands thy blessing," said the Oprichniks; then the prelate, turning towards his sovereign, addressed him in the following words: "Pious Tsar! whom dost thou emulate, having betrayed the beauty of greatness? Why hast thou come here, where the offering to God is a bloodless sacrifice, —thou, with bloodstained hands? Whence does the sun stand still in the heavens? the Tsar is laying waste his dominions!" "Seditious monk," cried out Ivan, "I am too merciful to traitors! I will henceforth be what thou hast called me!" The breach between the Tsar and the prelate now became wider and wider. "Silence," said Philip, as he rebuked the Tsar, "lays sins upon the soul, and brings death to the whole people. I am a stranger and a pilgrim upon earth, as all my fathers were, and I am ready to suffer for the truth." One day he boldly told him, "As the image of the Divinity I reverence thee; as a man thou art but dust and ashes." Accusations were soon brought against the Metropolitan, but the council, assembled to try him, separated with shame, after listening to his defence. He was officiating in the cathedral when a band of Oprichniks again entered, and, after reading the sentence of the council depriving him of his high office, dragged the old man from the altar, replaced his pontifical robes by a monk's cowl, and, driving him out of the church with brooms, carried him off into confinement. His relatives and friends were seized and executed. Ivan sent him a human head, with the inquiry, "Sorcerer, dost thou recognise this head?" "Yes," answered Philip, "it is the head of my nephew John;" and he kissed and blessed it. The saint was ultimately imprisoned in a monastery at Tver, where he was put to death.

This martyr in the cause of mercy and justice well deserves the honours of a shrine, and the devotion with which it is regarded. The emperor never fails to place his lips on the exposed and withered forehead of St. Philip.

Hermogenes, Patriarch of Moscow, who fell a victim to the Polish invasion in 1612, is likewise buried here.

The five domes are supported by pillars that are covered with frescoes on a gold ground. There is much gilding on the walls, but the glitter is somewhat moderated by the grim representations of departed saints of the church. At the same time it is impossible to enter this time-honoured sanctuary without a feeling of veneration, nor can a grander sight be possibly imagined than a coronation within its ancient walls, or even a Te Deum performed in the presence of the emperor and the court, particularly on the 15th (27th) August, the annual feast of the Church, when His Majesty sometimes goes there in state. A coronation is of course a still better opportunity. "The coronation," we again extract from Stanley, "even at the present time, is not a mere ceremony, but a historical event, and solemn consecration. It is preceded by fasting and seclusion, and takes place in the most sacred church in Russia; the emperor, not, as in the corresponding forms of European investiture, a passive recipient, but himself the principal figure in the whole scene; himself reciting aloud the confession of the orthodox faith; himself alone on his knees, amidst the assembled multitude, offering up the prayer of intercession for the empire; himself placing his own crown on his own head; himself entering through the sacred door of the innermost sanctuary, and taking from the altar the elements of the bread and wine."

The wooden throne which will be shown to the visitor as the throne of Wladimir Monomachus (A.D. 988) is probably of the 17th century. The Tsars before Peter stood in it attired in their robes during Divine service.

Behind the altar-screen, among other treasures, stands a Mount Sinai of pure gold, the gift of Prince Potemkin. It contains the Host, and is said

to weigh 120,000 ducats. Several state papers of importance are deposited under it, such as the Act of Succession of the Emperor Paul, and the Abdication of his son Constantine. A Bible, presented by the mother of Peter the Great, is so large that it almost requires two men to carry it, and it is said to weigh about 100 lbs. English. It is studded with emeralds and other precious stones.

7. *Arkhangelski Sobor, Cathedral of the Archangel Michael.*—This church stands close to the cathedral of the Assumption, of which it is partly a copy. It is a square whitewashed building, with nine gilded domes, and was originally built in 1333 to commemorate the deliverance of Russia from a dreadful famine. The present building, however, only dates from 1505. In ancient days the Tsars visited this cathedral immediately after their coronation, and on leaving it spread "largesse" of gold and silver among the people. Until the accession of Peter the Great, it was the mausoleum of the Rurik and Romanoff dynasties, beginning with John Kalità, grandson of Alexander Nevsky. The vaults below contain the remains of numerous princes of those families; their titles and ages are inscribed on the pall-covered tombs, among which the stranger may wander. Round the walls, above each coffin, are the effigies of the dead in long white robes. The only emperor buried here is Peter II., son of the unfortunate Alexis. To the orthodox, the object of paramount attraction is the tomb supposed to contain the body of the young Demetrius or Dmitri, son of John the Terrible, and who, having mysteriously disappeared, is believed to have been assassinated by orders of Boris Godunoff, subsequently elected Tsar. The appearance, later, of several pretenders, plunged the country into internecine strife, causing great bloodshed and disorder, which only terminated on the election of Michael Romanoff. A miracle connected with the discovery of the coffin and body of the canonized prince causes the shrine to be regarded with extreme veneration by the people, who come to kiss the forehead exposed to view. His portrait, in a frame of fine gold, is attached to a pillar above the coffin. The inhabitants of the town of Uglitch, where the prince was murdered, presented the tall silver candlestick which stands near the tomb.

Historically, the tomb of greatest interest is that of John IV. or "Terrible," who, notwithstanding his numerous offences against the canons of the Church, now lies next the altar. Twice a year a funeral service is performed for the sins of all those that are buried here, the Church praying for "that burden of sins, voluntary or involuntary, known to themselves or unknown," which the departed committed when on earth. Most of the prayers put up at this cathedral have been paid for in the most handsome manner in the shape of gorgeous vestments and massive ch. vessels, exhibited on application to the priest. Ladies will have to remain outside the Ikonostas, but the male traveller must have the patience to inspect the treasures of the sacristy, and, if permitted, to bring them out to the excluded. The emeralds on the richer *sakkos* are huge and very fine. There is a magnificent illuminated version of the Gospels (one of the earliest copies in Russia), in a splendid enamelled cover of fine gold, profusely studded with precious stones. Among other ecclesiastical objects, too numerous to mention, is a very old lantern of mica, brought away from Novgorod by John IV. It is in excellent preservation, having been recently gilded, and is still carried in Church processions.

A cross which belonged to John the Terrible is likewise remarkable for the size of the pearls in it; the emerald is 1-3rd of an inch in diameter.

The altar-screen is very valuable, being much adorned with gold. One of the images or shrines in it contains a drop of the blood of John the Baptist shown through a glass.

The priest should have a fee for exhibiting the antiquities, as well as the

sacristan, who will be found to speak excellent French.

8. *Blagoveschenski Sobor. Cathedral of the Annunciation.*—While the Tsars were crowned in the cathedral of the Assumption, and buried in the ch. dedicated to the Archangel Michael, they went through two other very important ceremonies in the cathedral of the Annunciation, for there they were baptized and married. Numerous relics attest the religious importance of the edifice. John the Terrible, when reduced, by his transgression of the canon law, to the state of a catechumen, listened outside the walls of the cathedral to the mass celebrated within, but the window at which he stood is no longer visible. The French stabled their horses there in 1812. The frescoes are curious. Those in the portico representing the Greek Philosophers as heralds of the coming of Christ should be noticed. The floor is paved with jasper and agate.

9. *Church of the Redeemer in the Wood* (*Spass na Borù*).—This sacred miniature edifice is almost concealed by the huge palace buildings. The traveller is sure to catch a glimpse of it from one of the palace windows. It is one of the oldest churches in the Kremlin, or even in Moscow, and was originally founded where a small wood once crowned the summit of the eminence now occupied by the Kremlin. It was a monastery in the 15th centy. The fires of Moscow and its invaders have left but little of antiquarian interest to attract the notice of the traveller. It is only interesting as the parent ch. of Moscow, and as containing the relics of Stephen of Perm, the first Christian missionary and martyr in Russia. His life is depicted in frescoes around the walls, renovated in 1863.

10. *Sacristy of the former Patriarchs, and now of the Holy Synod, Patriarshaya* (*Synodalnaya*) *Riznitsa.*—This was the Treasury, Library, and Vestry, first of the ancient metropolitans of Russia, then of the Patriarchs of Moscow, and is now called the House of the Holy Synod, an institution which replaced the Patriarchate in 1721, in the reign of Peter the Great. It stands close to the Cathedral of the Assumption, and is open daily to visitors. The Sacristy contains many objects of art of great antiquity, a few of which have been brought from Constantinople. The sacerdotal robes and ornaments, the church vessels, and the plate of the several patriarchs are deposited here. Among the former may be noticed some very rich robes or sakkos; the most venerable of these is that of St. Peter, who was Metropolitan between the years 1308 and 1325. Most of the Patriarchs of Moscow were invested with this sacred garment at their consecration. Among the sakkos, No. 15, of crimson velvet, is the most remarkable for the richness of its ornaments; it is embroidered all over with pearls of a large size, although but few of them are characterised by the round and symmetrical forms that are valued in jewellery; it is also adorned by a number of small gold plates with sacred subjects and devices produced in niello-work. The rubies, emeralds, almandines, garnets, and diamonds with which this gorgeous pontifical robe is further ornamented, contribute to the 54 pounds which it is said to weigh. John the Terrible presented it to the Metropolitan Denys, in memory of the Tsesarevitch John, and probably in expiation of his murder. These ancient robes, in their lavish magnificence, present a curious contrast to the more simple, although still gorgeous, vestments in which the Emperor Alexander II. clothed the venerable Philaret at his coronation in 1856.

The mitres, seven in number, deposited in the second room, are no less rich and interesting. The most ancient was worn by the Patriarch Job in 1595. Four of them belonged to the celebrated Nicon. The most valuable of these, called the great mitre, is studded with large diamonds, rubies, emeralds, sapphires, and pearls, and weighs 5½ pounds.

In glazed cases at the windows will be found several *panagias*, or images

worn on a chain round the necks of bishops and other members of the hierarchy. The most remarkable are —No. 11, in gold, semi-oval, ornamented with spinel rubies and large pearls, in the centre of which is an onyx bearing in cameo a figure of the prophet Daniel. This gem was worn by the Metropolitan Peter. No. 2, the figures of the Virgin and infant Saviour, cut in low relief in a Byzantine style, but probably work of cinquecento date, on a magnificent sardonyx of three layers. No. 3, a sardonyx of equal splendour, on which a figure of St. John the Scholastic is cut in a brown upper layer, resting on two strata that form a vast nicolo of perfect beauty, the strata of the stone being well exhibited by the bevilling of its sides. The work on this stone is also probably of the cinquecento period, and is supposed to have been executed for John the Terrible, in commemoration of the birth of his unfortunate son in 1555. At the back of this gem is a reliquary containing a fragment of the purple robe in which our Saviour was in derision clothed, and a piece of the rock of Calvary. The enamel on the back represents Mark, Bishop of Arethusa, and Cyril the Deacon. These two great sardonyxes are of nearly equal dimensions, each being about 3½ inches long and 2½ in breadth. In No. 4 we meet with another gem, a dark onyx with a white surface layer, in which is cut in relief a representation of the Crucifixion. On the other side is seen a Greek cross, supported by the Emperor Constantine and his mother Helena. This panagia was worked for Job the first Patriarch, who was consecrated in 1589, and who in 1605 was driven by a rebel mob from the altar in the Cathedral of the Assumption and divested of his Pontifical robes. Among the rest of the ornaments of this kind are several of very fine workmanship in gold and enamel, attributed to a very early period.

Of the crosiers exhibited here three belonged to the Patriarch Philaret, and the other two were carried by the Patriarch Nicon.

A copper vase, with a long narrow neck, overlaid with scales of mother-of-pearl, and called the Alabaster, is here shown as the original receptacle of the chrism sent from Constantinople. It is, however, evidently of more modern date. The few drops annually taken from it are by ancient usage replaced by an equal quantity of the new chrism, which thus represents to the faithful a portion of the precious ointment used by Mary Magdalene.

The plate of the patriarchs, kept in a large glass case, is chiefly of the 17th centy. Most of the goblets, dishes, and cups bear the names of their donors, or of the persons to whom they belonged.

A complete account of the ecclesiastical treasures of the sacristy will be found in a small work in the French language which may be purchased on the spot.

In a contiguous room, shown on application to the Sacristan, is prepared, in strict accordance with an ancient formula, the sacred oil or "mir," employed in the baptism of every orthodox Russian subject. It is also used in the consecration of all the churches of the orthodox communion, and in the anointment of the emperors at their coronation. At the baptism of children the priest crosses with a small camel-hair brush, or feather, dipped in the oil, the mouth, eyes, ears, hands, and feet, besides the back and breast: the eyes are anointed in order that the child may only see good, the ears that they may admit only what is pure, the mouth that he may speak as becomes a Christian, the hands that they may do no wrong, and the feet that they may tread in the path of virtue. The ingredient that hallows this preparation is an infinitesimal portion of the sacred oil transmitted from Constantinople when Christianity was introduced into Russia. The chrism is annually prepared during Lent, with much solemnity, by the Metropolitan of Moscow and the higher clergy. It is composed of nearly thirty different elements, oil and white wine being intermixed with a great variety of gums, balsams, essential oils, and spices. Two great

silver kettles and a still larger silver caldron, all presented by the Empress Catherine II., and kept in the plate-room, receive the sacred mixture during its preparation; it is then poured into sixteen silver jars, gifts of the Emperor Paul, and distributed on application to the bishops of the several dioceses. The ladles, the sieve for straining, and everything employed in the operation are of silver, and weigh together about 13 cwt.

The Library of the Patriarchs or Synod is supposed to have been founded by the ancient Metropolitans, but its greatest treasures were acquired during the Patriarchate of Nicon (1652-1658), for the purpose of comparing the corrupted ritual of the Russo-Greek Church with the more ancient manuscripts, Greek and Slavonian. The printed books which the library originally contained have been removed to other collections. In 1823 the Synodal Library boasted of 467 Greek MSS., of which 242 on parchment; and 956 Russo-Slavonian MSS., of which 96 on parchment. Very few additions have been made since. Three copies in Greek of the Evangelists, deposited here, are attributed to the 8th centy., and the earliest Slavonian MS. in this collection is supposed to have been written in the year 1073. The most ancient Slavonian version of the Gospels, in this library, bears the date of 1143.

The Metropolitan, or the Suffragan Bishop of Moscow, will, on application, give the student of patristic literature ready access to this extensive and important collection. A catalogue in Russian may be purchased of the sacristan, whose kind services should be rewarded.

11. *Chudof* or *Miracle Monastery* (at the Redeemer Gate).—The spot on which this monastery stands was occupied during the Tartar invasion by the stables of Djanibek, the dominant Khan, whose wife, Taidula, having been cured of a disease by St. Alexis, Metropolitan of all Russia, presented the latter with the ground now so holy. In 1365 St. Alexis laid the foundation of the monastery, which thenceforth became the residence and Cathedral of the Primates. Successive fires destroyed the buildings erected by the piety of various princely benefactors. The Cathedral was restored by the Tsar Michael and his father the Patriarch Philaret, but its present appearance is due to the munificence of the Empresses Anne and Elizabeth. It was sacked during a revolt in 1771, and pillaged in 1812, when it was occupied by the staff of Napoleon. Before the spoliation of the monasteries by Catherine II., this establishment had no less than 18,681 male serfs attached to it. The church of St. Michael was built by St. Alexis in 1365, rebuilt 1504, and restored in 1779. Its canonised founder lies in a silver shrine near the S. wall of the cathedral dedicated to his name. His *Sakkos* and other pontificals are preserved in a glass case near the shrine. St. Michael's Church stands in the yard of the monastery, and is not open daily. It is, however, well worth seeing since its restoration in the ancient style. The sacristy contains a MS. copy of the New Testament executed by St. Alexis, and much treasure in the shape of jewelled vestments and religious insignia. The library contains 236 MSS. on parchment and paper, and 199 printed books. There is a Psalter of the 13th centy. and another of the 15th. The oldest printed books are of the 17th centy. By ancient custom, children before being put to school are brought by their parents to this monastery to invoke the blessing of St. Alexis on their studies, and the peasants of a village formerly belonging to the saint still come on his name-day *to pray to their Lord.*

12. *Vosnesenski Devichi* (*Ascension*) *Convent.*—This nunnery was founded by Eudoxia, wife of Dimitry of the Don, in 1393, who retired to it after the death of the Conqueror of Kulikova. Although the princess fasted rigorously and wore heavy weights, she was wont to appear in the world attired in costly dress and precious stones,

thereby giving rise to a certain amount of scandal, which she however refuted by exhibiting the withering effects of her self-imposed penance. At last, however, she retired entirely from the world, and devoted her life to prayer and the healing of the sick. Thenceforth the nunnery became the last resting-place of the princesses of the reigning house. Consumed frequently by fires, the convent in its present form was built in 1721, and renovated after the conflagration of 1737 and the French occupation. The cells occupy 2 floors of a large stone building. The principal church stands in the centre of the court. The tombs of the princesses begin at the S. door and terminate at the N. entrance, being ranged in two rows along the walls. The most ancient is that of Eudoxia, or St. Eudoxia, as she is called by the Church, adorned with a silver shrine placed in 1822. On the rt. hand near the wall lies Eudoxia, the consort of Michael, the first sovereign of the Romanoff dynasty (obiit 1645): next to her are the 2 wives of his son Alexis. The tombs of the 2 wives of John III. will be found on the l., at the head of the tomb of Eudoxia. Next in the corner lies the first of his consorts, Mary, daughter of the Prince of Tver; and by her side are the remains of Sophia, daughter of Thomas Palæologus, brother of the last Christian Emperor of Constantinople. Another descendant of this Palæologus lies buried in the churchyard of the parish of Landulph in Cornwall. He died in 1636. The mother of John the Terrible comes next. Beyond are the tombs of 4 of his 6 wives; the last tomb is that of Eudoxia, first consort of Peter the Great, who died in 1731.

13. *Arsenal and Cannon.*—The arsenal stands between the Trinity and Nicholas Gates, on the spot where the Streltsi once mustered, and where stood the houses of many puissant Boyars. Its construction, on the model of the arsenal of Venice, was commenced in 1701, and finished in 1736. The N.E. angle was blown up 1812, and has since been restored. The cannon taken during the retreat of the French are arranged in long rows along the outside walls of the building. The French artillery is represented by 365 pieces, the Austrian by 189, the Prussian by 123, the Italian by 70, the Neapolitan by 40, the Bavarian by 34, the Dutch by 22, the Saxon by 12, the Spanish by 8, the Polish by 5, while Westphalia, Hanover, and Wurtemburg, make up the total of 875. The rest are mere ornamental pieces of ordnance cast in Russia. The huge cannon projecting from the furthest angle of the arsenal is called the Tsar-Pushka or Tsar-Cannon, on account of its extraordinary size. It was cast during the reign of Theodore, whose effigy is on it. Its weight is nearly 40 tons. There is also a mortar which was cast by the false Dmitry. When Peter, after the battle of Narva, ordered the old cannon and many church-bells to be recast into ordnance, he spared this historical monument by a special Ukaz. The longest cannon was cast in the reign of Alexis. The building opposite is the Senate-house — the High Court of Appeal of Moscow. It was built by Catherine II., and restored 1866. In it are established the new Courts of Law, with trial by jury in criminal cases. The magnificent hall is well worth seeing.

II. *Kitai Gorod*, or "*Chinese Town*," —The Kremlin having become overcrowded, Helena, the mother and regent of John the Terrible, ordered a large space to be enclosed outside the Kremlin, and to be called after her birthplace Kitaigrod in Podolia. The Kremlin was the *Castellum* and the Kitai the *Civitas*. The walls were commenced in 1535 by Petroc, an Italian. The following objects should be visited in the Kitai Gorod:—

1. *Cathedral of St. Basil the Beatified. Vassili Blajennoi* (also called the Cathedral of the Protection and the Trinity).—This remarkable ch. stands on the Krasnaya Ploschad (Red or

Beautiful Place), outside the Holy Gate of the Kremlin wall. It is erected on the site of an ancient ch. and cemetery, in which the sainted Basil, a popular prophet and worker of miracles, who, in the language of the Church, was "idiotic for Christ's sake," was buried in the year 1552. Two years later John the Terrible ordered a ch. to be built over the remains of Basil, in commemoration of the subjugation of Kazan. In 1555 the wooden ch. thus built was taken down and the foundation of the present edifice laid. Its architect was an Italian, whose eyes, tradition wrongly reports, were put out by John the Terrible after the construction of the ch., in order that it might not be equalled or surpassed. It is supposed to have been finished in the latter part of the 16th centy. by Theodore, the son and successor of John IV., who caused to be placed in this ch. the relics of another saint, John the Idiot, surnamed the "Water-carrier and Big-cap," from his habit of carrying water for others, and from his wearing a heavy iron cap on his head. Idiotcy is a form of mendicancy very common in Russia, the people being religiously compassionate in cases of mental aberration. Beggars of this description still go about Moscow barefooted in winter. The ch. of St. Basil suffered frequently from fire, and was under repair from 1744 to 1784. In 1812 Napoleon ordered the general in command of his artillery "to destroy that mosque;" but it was spared for reconsecration on the 1st December of the same year.

The cathedral is grotesquely irregular in appearance. It has 11 domes, each different in colour and design, surmounting as many chapels dedicated to various saints. The shrine of St. Basil reposes in the chapel below, which is alone open daily. In order to see the upper Chapels application must be made to the clergy of the church. Visitors will be shown the heavy chains and crosses which St. Basil wore for penance. The iron weights which belonged to the other idiot will be viewed in another chapel. His cap was lost in 1812.

2. *The "Lobnoé Mesto,"* a circular tribune of stone outside the cathedral of St. Basil.—It was also called the "Kranievo Mesto," from *cranium*, its present appellation being also derived from *lob*, a skull, or golgotha. But as the tribune was built by Italian architects early in the 16th centy., its name is probably identical with the *lobium* or *lobia*, in the dialect of Milan—a raised place or open portico where the citizens assembled to deliberate, suggestive of the *lobby* of the House of Commons. Popular tradition asserts that this tribune was anciently a place of execution; but modern archæologists dispute it, and insist on its having been merely a place from which the Tsar addressed the people, and where his edicts were proclaimed. The first mention of the Lobnoé Mesto is in 1549, after a dreadful fire and riot, when John the Terrible stood on it, and weeping acknowledged his misrule and solemnly promised to be in future the judge and defender of his subjects. The metropolitan and patriarchs of Moscow blessed the people from this tribune. Nicon stood here and gave Alexis that blessing which, having been inefficacious in overturning the Poles, brought down upon him the wrath of his sovereign and laid the foundation of his disgrace. The ceremony of riding on an ass, performed in great state by the patriarchs before Easter, was opened by the reading of the Gospels on this Golgotha. The patriarch, carrying the cup and the Gospels, mounted an ass at the foot of the tribune, and the Tsar led it by the bridle to the cathedral of the Assumption. In 1682 the leaders of the Dissenters addressed the Moscovites from the Lobnoé Mesto in defence of their objections to the innovations of Nicon. The space in front remained the place of execution until 1727, when Peter II. ordered the gallows and stakes to be removed.

3. *The Romanoff House (Palata Boyar Romanovykh).*—A visit to this *palatium* will afford the traveller an opportunity of studying the architecture and mode of life of the Russians in the middle ages. The Romanoff

House, restored between 1856 and 1859, was the birthplace of Michael, the first sovereign of the reigning dynasty, whose father, the Boyar Theodore, known later as Philaret, Patriarch of Moscow, was also brought up there. The external walls, built of stone, are alone of undoubted antiquity; the interior, after having been ravaged by fire and sacked by the French, is now entirely rebuilt in the style of Russian dwelling-houses of the 16th and 17th centuries. It is more a museum of ancient domestic art than a monument of antiquity.

The house stands on the slope of a small eminence, and has 4 stories on the S. towards the court, and only one facing Varvarskaia-street, where it occupies a frontage of about 57 ft. The principal entrance is from the court.

Cellars for wine, mead, beer, kvass, and ice, form the basement; the next story is devoted to the kitchen and various offices. The apartments of the Boyar are above. These consist of a vestibule, to the right of which is a room for female servants; next to this again visitors will find a diminutive nursery, in which are exhibited the toys and primers of the period. The largest room on this floor is called the Chapel, or "Krestovaya" (Chamber of the Cross). Here the chief of the family received the priests who came to offer their congratulations at Christmas, Easter, and other great holydays, and assisted with his dependants at matins and vespers. The roof is arched in a kind of Gothic style with niches, the whole being richly ornamented with devices taken from patents delivered by the Tsar Michael.

The family plate and other valuables were preserved in this sacred chamber. Some curious specimens are exhibited on a stand, which, in the language of the country, was called a *gorka* or mountain. The traveller will recognise a small equestrian statuette of Charles I., and by their make 2 ewers presented by Charles II. At great festivals the plate was piled up in the centre of the table. Goblets and other vessels of silver were very much in fashion, and were, in the absence of orders of knighthood and of medals, bestowed by the sovereign in recompense of meritorious services. There are many objects of antiquity in this chamber illustrative of the domestic habits of the Tsars. There are also several secret recesses in the walls for the concealment of treasure. A glass cupboard contains some ancient images, and among them is one with which, tradition says, Philaret blessed his son when he was elected Tsar, and with that image also the present metropolitan Philaret blessed the Emperor Alexander II. at the benediction of the Romanoff House on its restoration. Alongside this chamber are a small oratory and the "Boyarskaia Palata," a kind of study. On a table in the latter are writing materials and two brass inkstands after the model of those used in England in the days of Chaucer. The lion and unicorn, with which these are decorated in relief, are Byzantine emblems, and have nothing to do with the supporters of the royal arms of England.

It is heated by a stove of coloured tiles with allegorical figures and various inscriptions; thus on one brick the visitor will see two birds separating from each other, with the motto, "Fidelity unites us;" on another a tortoise with the humorous adage, "There is no better house than one's own." Æsop's fables were frequently represented on the bricks of that period.

A door leads from the Krestovaya, by a narrow staircase, to the top story or *terem*, a name supposed to be derived from a Greek word, signifying "upper floor reserved for women." The terem is built of wood, and includes the bedchamber, the svetlitsa or reception-room, and a turret.

Below are two rooms which formed the Nursery. In it will be seen a cradle, toys, primers, &c., of the early part of the 17th centy.

The walls and ceiling of the bedchamber are very richly carved in wood after ancient patterns. Benches, covered with brocade, line the walls, and an old 4-post bedstead completes the furniture of the apartment. There

is a small box at the foot of the bed, which the curious are advised to look into. It contains, among other things, the slippers of the Tsar, and the chemise de nuit of a Tsarina. The room next to it is the hall of reception; its walls are covered with stamped leather. There is a charming view from the windows of this apartment towards the city, beyond the Moskva and Yaouza rivers.

The roof, which is covered with tin plates, is prettily ornamented with open work in copper, and a pavilion on the west is surmounted by a vane, in the form of a griffin, holding a short sword in one paw and a shield in the other, being the offensive and defensive weapons borne in the Romanoff arms.

The lions on the staircase bear shields with the same cognizance.

A small fee should be given to the two servants at the door. Open on Mondays and Thursdays by ticket, to be obtained at the office within the Kremlin.

In the same street stood the house of the first English merchants in Russia, where they also coined money. It is now called the Sibirskoé Podvorié, or Siberian hostelry.

4. *Strastny* (Passion) *Monastery. General View of Moscow.*—The traveller will by this time be tired of viewing palaces and antiquities, and will be glad to see other objects. He is therefore advised to proceed to the "Strastny Monastir," not far from the governor's house, which stands on some of the highest ground in Moscow, and affords an excellent view of the city. The belfry may be ascended without any permission, the door leading to it being generally open. Although the tower of Ivan Veliki is loftier, yet the panorama seen from the belfry of the Strastny, situated in the heart of the city, gives a far better impression of its size and beauty.

There is nothing of interest within the "Strastny." It dates from the reign of Alexis, and was restored in 1779.

5. *Gostinnoi Dvor*, or *Bazaar*.—The trade of Moscow has been centered within the Kitai Gorod since 1596. The Gostinnoi Dvor is a colossal building of 3 stories, and the shops and passages form a perfect labyrinth. The statue opposite the bazaar represents Minin the peasant urging Pojarsky the boyar to deliver Moscow from his enemies the Poles. The traveller should ask to see the Serebriani Riad or Silver Row, where spoons and other small articles of plate of Russian manufacture may be cheaply bought; bracelets and snuff-boxes of Tula or niello-work make very pretty presents, the former costing 3 to 4 r. There are 2 or 3 curiosity shops in the same row; but travellers unacquainted with the system of bargaining should be very careful in making purchases, and confine themselves to a general view of the market. (Purchasers of pictures, old china, and silver, should visit Rodionof's shop in Pokrovka-street.) The use of the stcheti or *abacus* (the Tartar suanpan) is a curious feature in Russian trading, and will be constantly seen here. A little way beyond the bazaar, on the opposite side of the street, are some shops where Circassian wares are sold. Experience, however, speaks in favour of the assortments of these goods at St. Petersburg. The washing silks of the Caucasus, at about 1 r. 25 c. the arshin, are very good. The secondhand shops along the wall of the Kitai Gorod present an odd mixture of trades and mercantile types. The visitor may stroll past them. The only other market worthy of a rapid glance is, during the proper season, the winter market outside the Kitai walls.

Immediately after the frost has fairly set in, an indiscriminate slaughter of live stock of all kinds commences. The carcase is exposed at once to the cold air and frozen, without being previously allowed to become cold: when wanted for use, it is immersed in water for a few minutes, and after being thus thawed the meat may be used, but it has not the freshness and flavour that it would have if just killed; when once thawed it must be cooked without delay. If it has

been allowed to cool before it is frozen, although no difference is perceptible while in its frozen state, immediately on being thawed the meat turns black, and is totally unfit for use; and the same result ensues upon the frost breaking up in the spring. But it certainly is a good expedient, not only to save the expense of keeping the animals so many months, but to have their flesh at any moment fresh, while its icy hardness is an effectual protection against the injuries it might otherwise sustain in being conveyed from one extremity of the country to the other. Early in the winter the first great frozen market is held in all the large cities, and all prudent housekeepers lay in as ample a supply of provisions as their means will enable them. Merchants with provisions then crowd to Moscow and St. Petersburg from all quarters of the empire. The fish of the White Sea and of the great northern lakes are piled in huge heaps in the streets, side by side with the frozen oxen from the steppes of the Crimea, the sheep from the shores of the Caspian, and the deer from the banks of the Enisei and Irtish. The number of persons employed in this traffic is enormous, and the entire interruption to it, caused by the occupation of Moscow by the French in 1812, just at the time of the great market, contributed not a little to increase the miseries of war.

On one or two occasions a sudden break of the frost, after a week or fortnight's continuance, when immense quantities of frozen provisions have been thawed on their way to the markets, has caused not only great loss to the merchants, but serious inconvenience to the inhabitants of the large cities, who, relying on this regular supply, make no other preparation for their wants.

6. *Iverskié Vorota*, Iberian Gate and Chapel, dedicated to the Iberian Mother of God.—This is the principal entrance and exit into the Kitai Gorod. The chapel contains a picture of the Iberian Mother of God, brought from Mount Athos in the reign of Alexis, and considered to be of miraculous efficacy. It is always beset by worshippers, whose donations amount to about 10,000*l.* per annum, of which 7000*l.* is contributed towards the pay of the Metropolitan of the see of Moscow. The devotional habits of the Russian people may be watched here with interest.

Having viewed the Kremlin and Kitai Gorod, the traveller should drive to see the places below enumerated.

Detached Sights.

Foundling Hospital.—No traveller should omit a visit to this institution, for which an order is easily procured. The sight of this huge nursery is as curious as it is instructive, and will afford plenty of materials for reflection to the moralist, or the student of social science. It was opened in 1763 by the Empress Catherine II., and organized in accordance with the views of Betski, an eminent philanthropist of that reign, whose portrait is exhibited in a gallery, together with the likenesses of successive benefactors too numerous to mention. A Lombard bank or Mont de Piété now in liquidation, and a Savings Bank which still flourishes, have hitherto been the sources of revenue of this establishment, but the facilities afforded by railways of bringing infants to a common centre threaten seriously to make inadequate the ways and means now supplied by the Government since the concentration of all financial institutions in the State Bank. The yearly grant amounts to about 180,000*l.*

A lying-in hospital, with secret wards, but open likewise to mothers who are only poor, occupies one of the wings, while the largest and best part of the square building is devoted to an institution for female orphans. More than 2000 women have recourse annually to the secret wards, and about 200 to those reserved for cases of poverty. The Foundling hospital admits yearly about 12,000 children, who are not left, as in some other institutions of a similar kind, at the door of the building, but are taken openly, either by their mothers

or some friend, into an entrance room set apart for the purpose. Here the infant is at once received without any further question being asked than, "Has the child been baptised?" and if so, "By what name?" The child is then registered in the books of the institution; a number is assigned to it, which is henceforward worn around its neck, and figures on its cot, while a receipt, showing the same number, is handed to the bearer of the child, in order to enable her to visit, or even claim it at any future period up to the age of 10 years. The infant is then passed into another room, where, after being undressed and washed, it is swaddled in the clothes of the Hospital, and handed to its future foster parent, she being the woman who happens at the moment to stand at the head of the list amongst a number who are always waiting in attendance. These women, who are generally peasants from the country, have frequently, it is believed, themselves been the depositors of their own children at the hospital a few hours previously, but probably the great majority are mothers who have left their own children in the country to be brought up by hand, being attracted by the wages of 6*d.* and sometimes 8*d.* a day and the good fare provided them in the institution.

From the room where the infants are received, the visitor will doubtless pass with interest from one ward to another of this vast hospital, where he will not fail to perceive that nothing which good domestic management can suggest, or medical art approve, has been omitted. The whole establishment is conducted with the regularity of clockwork under the management and supervision of an experienced and intelligent medical staff, while the smallest and most trivial operation is performed with the utmost delicacy of which the female hand is capable. The simple arts of washing and dressing are brought to a perfection, and executed with a rapidity, unknown elsewhere. The infants are bathed in copper tubs of the most convenient form, lined with thick flannel, and they are dressed on down pillows, instead of on the bony knees, or the still more cruel hoops, of modern nurses. There are distinct wards for every illness to which the children are liable, with the newest and most approved appliances fitted to each. In the ward for eye diseases, the visitor should try to see the eye syringe in use. The utmost attention is bestowed on infants prematurely born, whose life is sustained by placing them in hollow copper bassinets, the sides and bottom of which are filled with hot water.

The morning after their admission, the children, if not already baptized, are admitted within the pale of the orthodox Church, receiving the Christian name of the saint who may happen to preside over that day in the Russian calendar, and, for a surname, the Christian name of the priest who officiates, with the addition of the "off," so familiar in Russian patronymics. After remaining in the institution for 4 weeks, and having been vaccinated, the infants, if strong and healthy, are sent, together with their nurses, to the villages to which the latter belong. Here the nurses receive about 4*s.* 6*d.* a month for the maintenance of their charges, under the supervision of the doctor of the district. The coarse fare of the peasantry, however, and the rigour of the climate, cause about 50 per cent. of the children to die before the age of one year, and about a quarter only of those brought to the hospital arrive at maturity.

It may be argued that such institutions tend to recognise and increase immorality, and statistics may be adduced to show, that, while the number of illegitimate births in the whole Russian empire is little over 4 per cent., at Moscow and St. Petersburg, where Foundling Hospitals exist, the proportion is in the former town 37¾, and in the latter 20½ per cent., and that there are about 10 per cent. more of illegitimate births at Moscow than at Paris. On the other hand, it may be questioned whether the proportion of legitimate or illegitimate registered births is a just criterion of morality. The proportion of the latter to the former is always greater in the large and thickly popu-

lated towns than in the country; and as to the relative proportion between Moscow and Paris, this will only be really known when the science of statistics shall have learnt to give the numbers of undiscovered cases of infanticide and other hardly less infamous crimes. Moreover, a great proportion of the children brought to the institution are not illegitimate, and are only left there by the parents from poverty or if in service.

On the other hand, the increase of population effected by the Foundling Hospitals of Moscow and St. Petersburg is not so great as might at first sight be supposed; for independent of the great mortality among the children after they have left the institution—mortality owing, in a great degree, to the severe climate, and to the universal custom among the Russian peasantry of leaving young infants alone for several hours at a time, with the "Soska," or kind of milk poultice, at their mouths, to nourish or to choke them,—it must not be forgotten that but too many of these illegitimate children are saved at the expense of the lawful offspring of their nurses, left at a critical age to be brought up by hand in the villages.

The boys when they grow up are not amenable to military service, and are even exempt from certain taxes. The great mass of them become agricultural labourers. About 150 are annually brought up at the Industrial School at Moscow, where they are taught various trades, and 250 at the School of Surgery as hospital dressers. Some of the girls are taken back to the hospital, where they are trained as nurses, and even as midwives, for which a special school is attached. In case a girl marries in her village before attaining her majority, she is provided by the institution with a trousseau.

The Nicholas Institute, which will be shown the visitor, is only for the female orphans of indigent servants of the crown; another for boys existing elsewhere. About 800 girls receive here a liberal education, intended to prepare them for tuition. On leaving establishment they are provided with an outfit, and enjoy small salaries, proportionate to the certificates which they have gained on their examination—salaries which they receive during the 6 years which they are bound to devote to the Crown as governesses and school teachers in the interior of the empire.

Although this school is attached to the Foundling Hospital, no foundlings are admitted. 50 girls are brought up in it at their own expense.

The register of the Foundling Hospital is an object of interest to those who understand the Russian language. It contains an entry in 1812 of 2 boys sent there by order of the Emperor Napoleon. Admission on application to the governor. The porter will expect a fee.

Public Museum (*Publichny Musée, dom Pashkova*).—The Rumiantsoff Museum, bequeathed to the public in 1828 by Count Rumiantsoff, Chancellor of the Empire, was removed in 1861 from St. Petersburg to Moscow, where it now forms the nucleus of a collection that aspires to rival that of the British Museum. It occupies a splendid mansion, once the residence of the Pashkof family, and which, from its imposing site, stands out prominently from amidst the other colossal and picturesque buildings of Moscow. The original Rumiantsoff Museum has been considerably augmented by donations and by other collections, such as that of Christian antiquities and early Greek and Slavonic MSS., lent by Mr. P. Sevastianof, a patriotic archæologist.

The *Library*, increased by imperial gifts and by purchases, now possesses 160,000 volumes. It is particularly rich in ancient Slavonic MSS., which are arranged chronologically in glass cases; 45 of them are on parchment. One of the most ancient Slavonian MSS. of the Gospels, written in 1164, is to be found here. No less than three MSS. on parchment or paper belong to the 12th century, ten to the 13th, twenty to the 14th, and forty-three to the 15th. There are also very many well-executed copies of ancient MSS.,

and 42 copies of the Evangelists, ranging between the 12th and 16th centuries. The library is rich in historical and ecclesiastical MSS. and in specimens of early printing in the Russian characters. The room in which the bust of Nicholas I. is placed contains the library of his consort in handsomely bound volumes. The private papers and correspondence of the great Chancellor are deposited here. Count Rumiantsoff took great pains in collecting works, originals as well as copies, having reference to the relations between Russia and other countries. A volume entitled 'Copies of Letters written and received by Sir Charles Cornwaleys, Knight, during his Embassie in Spain, with other his Observations and Negociations, 1606,' may interest the English traveller. The library is enriched by the valuable collection of Mr. Norof, whose Aldine and Elziverian editions are worthy of inspection, as well as the works of Giordano Bruno, and the 'Atlantica' by Rudbeck, the most complete copy next to those of Upsala and Stockholm. In the centre room of this library is a marble allegorical statue of Peace, by Canova, on a pedestal of granite, in commemoration of the Peace of Abo (1743), of that of Kainardji (1774), and of Frederichshamm (1809). On each side of this statue are placed two splendid vases, from the imperial manufactory, presented by the Emperor. Their value is 12,000 roubles. There are also a statue and a bust in marble of Count Rumiantsoff Zadunaiski. None of these are of any extraordinary merit. The portrait of Chancellor Rumiantsoff, the founder of the museum, is by Geo. Dawe.

The sculpture gallery has been supplied with slabs from the Egyptian and Assyrian Courts of the British Museum, and contains nothing original.

A room is devoted in this museum to a collection of Masonic MSS. and books. It contains the Archives of the Lodges in Russia, between the years 1816 and 1821, although many manuscripts are of an earlier date, Russia having been declared an independent Masonic Province in 1781. Freemasonry was formally abolished in 1823, but it nevertheless continued to exist surreptitiously some time longer, as proved by some of the documents preserved here, bearing the date of 1830.

In a corridor will be found masonic decorations, &c. To the right of the corridor is a numismatic collection. The next door leads to the Dashkof Ethnographical Museum. Proceeding along the corridor, the visitor will find on the rt. a room in which the various objects collected by Kotzebue during his voyage round the world have been deposited. Continuing along the corridor a large hall will be reached, where figures the size of life are placed to represent the various races inhabiting Russia. In the centre are specimens of the "Great Russian" race, next come the Little Russians, and, lastly, the Caucasian tribes. In the next room are tents of the Kalmucks and Kirghizes. To the rt., below, are the domestic utensils, &c., of the various races. A staircase leads to a hall in which are arranged figures of the Slavonian races not subject to Russia, while in the gallery above are excellent photographs of all the Slavonian races. These figures or dolls formed the "Ethnographical Exhibition," held at Moscow in 1867, which has since given rise to so much apprehension in Austria.

An *Exhibition of Christian Antiquities* occupies four rooms in the upper floor of the museum. It consists principally of specimens of ecclesiastical art brought from Mount Athos, and of casts and photographs of Byzantine and early Russian archæological objects. An image in mosaic of the Saviour, attributed to the 10th or 11th century, a gold cross of Byzantine enamel of the same period, and several manuscripts and specimens of early printing, are among the antiquities of which Mr. Sevastianoff, the owner of the collection, is chiefly proud.

The Mineralogical collection is not very remarkable, although a few specimens are worthy of note. Among these are a mass of native copper from the Boguslaf mines in Siberia, and vari-

ous crystallized and other specimens of the same metal. A huge crystal of smoky quartz from Ekaterinburg, may also be noticed. Attention may be drawn to a fine beryl and some good specimens of the rare chromate of lead from Siberia, to the axinite from Dauphiné, and to a fine specimen of crystallized native sulphur from the extinct locality of Conil in Spain.

In the Zoological Department will be seen a small specimen of the mammoth, and numerous skulls of that animal. In a glass case near the window are pieces of the integuments, masses of hair, and a whitish substance taken out of the socket of the eye of the huge beast, when found in Siberia.

The Picture Gallery owes its origin to the gift, by the present Emperor, of a large picture by Ivanoff, "Christ appearing to the People." Professor Waagen selected a few pictures for this museum characteristic of the several schools of painting from amongst the collection in the Hermitage, the value of which splendid gallery has not been materially diminished by the abstraction. Ivanoff's picture, placed in the last room, is very striking on account of the relief of some of the figures, especially that of the young man climbing out of the water; and the head of the decrepit old man supported by a youth, who is probably his son, is certainly admirable for expression. The picture is painted in exaggerated cold tones, but the drawing shows evidence of most careful study. There is a considerable sameness in the faces, a monotony probably produced by employing the same model, and altogether the picture has certainly not the attractions of the more celebrated work of this native artist, that of "Christ appearing to Mary Magdalen," exhibited in the Hermitage. Close to it is a small picture (No. 201), "the Death of Pelopidas," by Andrew Ivanoff, father of the above painter.

Travellers may study the rise and progress of Russian painting in the gallery of Senator Prianitchikoff, removed to the museum in 1867. It contains 122 pictures, of which 12 are by Brülow.

The Flemish school is represented by originals of Breughel (No. 6), Rubens (Nos. 13 and 15, the latter being rather doubtful), Jordaens (No. 22, "Paul and Barnabas at Lystra"), Van Dyck (No. 32, portrait of Lady Wharton), Teniers (No. 40, "The Temptation of St. Antony"). There is also a Rembrandt (No. 75, "Decapitation of John the Baptist"); but the Italian artists only appear in copies more or less cotemporaneous. No. 66 is a rather curious picture by Joseph Platzer of the parable of "The man without the wedding garment." There is also a fine figure of a monk, in the first room, by Ludwig Knaus, the Dusseldorf artist. Recently added: "Penitence," by Overbeck; and the "Angels smiting the inhabitants of Sodom with blindness," by Wenig of St. Petersburg—striking pictures. We may also mention "Prince Menschikoff in exile," by Ford, and "The death of Josaphat Kunsewicz," recently canonized; painted by Simmler, 1861.

The English portrait-painters are represented by George Dawe in a full-length likeness of Prince Madatof; the same artist painted the portrait of Count Rumiantsoff, exhibited in one of the halls of the museum. The portrait of General Isakoff, founder of the museum, painted by Dawe, will likewise be seen in one of the rooms, together with a beautiful vase with medallions of the year 1812.

There is also a collection of Engravings and Photographs, most of them being duplicates from the Hermitage. The Arundel Society has contributed many of its publications.

Admission gratis on Tuesdays, Thursdays, Saturdays, and Sundays.

Galitsin Museum.—Prechistinka-str. Open Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays, 12 to 3. Foreigners will obtain permission to inspect it at any other time, on application to the Director, who lives on the premises.

This museum was formed by Prince Michael Galitsin, sometime Russian minister at Madrid, and who died 1860.

It consists of a library, picture gallery, and a collection of curiosities.

The most remarkable books in the library are two xylographic volumes, entitled, 'The Sufferings of our Saviour,' and 'Ars Moriendi,' produced shortly before the invention of printing. Next to these is a second book, printed soon after the introduction of printing with moveable type:—'Gulielmi Durandi Rationale divinorum officiorum, 1459,' and 'Cicero de Officiis, 1465.' The first is *editio princeps*. According to the opinion of Brunet one of the books in this library, viz. the 'Tractatus de Sumpcione,' &c., was printed by Gutenberg himself. The visitor will also see here the first printed papal bull, and other curiosities of typographical art, as well as a fine collection of Aldine and Elziverian editions.

In the *picture gallery* the most remarkable painting is by Perugino (No. 1), representing our Saviour on the Cross surrounded by saints. The other valuable pictures are: No. 10, by Carlo Dolce, "Tobit and the Angels;" No. 21, by Cima di Conegliano; No. 33, by Francesco Francia and others, representing the Italian school. The remarkable pictures belonging to the Dutch and Flemish schools are: Van der Veyder (No. 45); Van der Meylen (No. 58); Caspar Netcher, Metun, &c. Three pictures of the French school from the Orleans gallery are very fine specimens. There are also many original paintings of other schools, the total number being above 200, among which are very few copies. The whole of this almost entirely original collection was made by the Princes Galitsin.

The collection of curiosities is well known to connoisseurs of all countries. There is a small earthenware jug (biberna) (No. 496) of Henri II., which is valued by amateurs at 1000*l*. Only 37 articles of this ware are to be found in the whole of Europe, a few being in England. The other interesting objects are: a chess-board of the latter part of the 16th century. Vases, once the property of Louis XVI. and Marie Antoinette; a large collection of cameos, antiquities from Pompeii, articles of Etruscan bronze; an old steel lock and key in the shape of a temple, made in 1617; a group of figures made of pearls and gold enamelled, representing a Moor mounted on a camel; vases of old Chinese porcelain (Nos. 215, 502, 597); plates that belonged to the Medici (No. 498); a drinking cup with a likeness of Gustavus Adolphus on the lid, and the story of Susannah round the body of the cup.

Other Museums and Collections.—Besides the Galitsin Museum the following private collections are worth seeing. *Soldatenkoff's* in Miasnitsky-street; *Botkin's*, in Pokrovka-street; *Zencker's* on Stretensk boulevard. These may all be seen by permission of the proprietors.

Chertkoff's Library, in Miasnitsky-street, is now open to the public, and may be visited at any time. It contains a collection of all the books written in foreign languages on Russia.

The Great Riding School (*Manège*).—One of the most remarkable buildings in Moscow is the celebrated Riding School, supposed to be the largest room in the world unsupported by pillar or prop of any kind. Writers differ as to its dimensions, but we believe we are nearly accurate when we place its length at 560 ft., breadth 158 ft., and height 42. The great town-hall of Padua is only 240 ft. long and 80 ft. broad; Westminster Hall is 275 ft. by 75; and King's College, Cambridge, 291 ft. by 45½; but that is an area small indeed in comparison, though great is the difference between the two roofs. The ceiling of the Riding School is flat, and the exterior of the roof very slightly elevated. The interior is adorned with numerous bas-reliefs of men in armour and ancient trophies; and the stoves, which cannot be

fewer than 20, made of white shining earthenware, and rising to the ceiling, have a very good effect. There are small windows at a considerable height from the ground, but owing to its enormous width the interior of the building looks, even when the sun shines, dull and sombre. Here, in the most intense cold, when even the Russian soldier can scarce stand in his sentry-box, the troops can perform their exercises unobstructed by the severity of the weather; and the vast enclosure gives ample room for two regiments of cavalry to go through all their various evolutions and manœuvres.

The traveller will naturally be anxious to examine the peculiar structure of the roof, and ascertain by what unseen support its massive beams are sustained; and he was formerly allowed to do so by ascending the winding stairs in the corner of the Riding School, when he soon found himself amidst a forest of beams, stays, and rafters, of all forms and dimensions; but a special order for viewing it is now required.

The University.—The University of Moscow, the oldest in Russia Proper, was founded by the Empress Elizabeth, daughter of Peter the Great, in 1755, and has ever since been a favourite national seat of learning. It has produced several statesmen, many officers of distinction, and men of letters, the most celebrated of whom is the poet Jukowsky. The statutes of all the Universities in Russia were remodelled in 1863, after some riotous proceedings on the part of the students at St. Petersburg and Moscow, who objected to the raising of the matriculation fees. The University of Moscow is composed of four faculties,—History, Physics, Jurisprudence, and Medicine, —and is a State institution, under the authority of the Minister of Public Instruction. There is also a chair for theology at each University for students of the Russo-Greek faith, and special lectures for the German, French, English, and Italian languages.

There are 75 professors and lecturers attached to this University, which is frequented by 1600 students. The annual payment by students is only 50 rubles (7*l.* 10*s.*). A few are admitted to the lectures *in formâ pauperis*, and a considerable number as stipendiaries of charities, Government schools, &c. The State contributes about 62,000*l.* annually towards the expense of this University, the total expenditure being about 68,000*l.* The several academical degrees confer a corresponding rank or *tchin* in the civil service. The Universities are open to all youths above 17 years of age who shall have passed a satisfactory examination in one of the gymnasia or some other scholastic institution under the supervision of the Minister of Public Instruction, as well as to those who shall have undergone a certified course of tuition at home.

The terms of admission being thus easy, a university education in Russia is no aristocratic distinction.

The *Library* contains 160,000 volumes, and is more especially rich in historical works. The scientific collections are considerable in size and of a practical character. The anatomical cabinet of Loder, and the microscopic preparations of Lieberkuhn, are worthy of notice. There are also some extraordinary specimens of human malformations kept in spirits of wine, a very good collection of skeletons, and many curiosities in the way of foreign substances extracted from the stomachs of animals. A camel's stomach, extended to its natural extent, with all its cells and subdivisions so arranged as to render visible every corner in which the food was retained till perfectly dissolved, and an instrument used by Peter the Great in drawing teeth, are likewise exhibited.

The Zoological Cabinet contains 73,638 specimens.

The University has a good working mineral collection, not very remarkable for its individual specimens. (10,800 in number).

An hospital is attached to the University, with lying-in wards; also the Hospital of St. Catherine, where 1400 patients are annually admitted.

Suhareff Tower.— This conspicuous and elegant object marks the old N.E. boundary of the city. A regiment of Streltsi, under the command of Col. Suhareff, guarded this part of the town, and kept a gate which then stood there. When the Streltsi revolted in 1682, Suhareff's regiment escorted Peter and his mother and brother to the Troitsa Monastery. Between the years 1692 and 1695 Peter the Great caused the old gate of his faithful regiment to be replaced by the present building. In his enthusiasm for naval matters, the great founder of the Russian navy caused the tower to be built in the shape of a vessel, the tower representing the mast, and the galleries all round pretending to a resemblance with the quarter-deck of an ancient flag-ship, while the eastern and western extremities were to typify the bow and stern. Peter the Great is supposed to have held secret councils of State in a chamber of this tower; and tradition says it was the place of meeting of a kind of Masonic lodge, styled, "Neptune's Company," of which Peter I. was the head. The people believed that their great Tsar and his companions practised the "black arts" within the Suhareff. Comedies were performed there in 1771 by the first troop of foreign actors that ever came to Russia. The boys of a Naval School, instituted in this tower, were taught to perform on the stage, and were at one time sent to St. Petersburg to drive piles into the marshes on the banks of the Moika. On the protest, however, of Adm. Apraxin, they were relieved of that duty, and sent to study in foreign parts. After having been appropriated by Peter to a Naval School, under the direction of a Scotchman of the name of Fergusson, and later to one of the civil departments of the Admiralty, the Suhareff Tower has been used since 1829 as a reservoir for supplying the whole of Moscow with water brought in tubes from a distance of 10 miles. The tower is 210 feet in height to the top of the vane. Its style is a mixture of the Lombard and Gothic.

Temple of the Saviour.—This imposing structure, seen from every part of the city, was commenced in 1812, and is still in an unfinished state. It is to commemorate the French invasion, and when completed will certainly be a worthy rival of St. Isaac's. The stonework of the interior, even in its present state, is well worth seeing. A considerable part of it is in "Labrador" stone of very high polish. The fine haut-relief figures with which the exterior of the chapel is adorned were commenced by Professor Luganofsky, since dead, and continued by Baron Klodt and Professor Ramazanoff, likewise native sculptors. In the neighbourhood of Moscow are very extensive quarries of the sandstone of which the ch. is built.

Drives and Excursions.

1. *The Sparrow Hills and the Empress's Villa.*—Amongst the various drives which every stranger takes in the environs of Moscow, that to the Sparrow Hills is one of the most interesting, both as affording a fine view of the city, and as being the ground where Napoleon obtained his first glance of it.

To the rt. of the Sparrow Hills is the Smolensk road, by which the French entered Moscow.

The gardens belonging to the Galitsin family are prettily situated on the sloping banks of the Moskva, which flows in gentle windings beneath them. Near here is the villa of the late Empress, formerly the property of Count Orloff, and presented by him to her Imperial Majesty. This villa, a much more appropriate term for it than palace, which it is sometimes called, is very handsomely furnished, and comfort, in the English sense of the word, is quite realised; the Empress's bedroom and boudoir are particularly worthy of attention; the walls are not papered, but hung with white muslin lined with pink, and fluted with as much care as a goffered collar. The

view from the balcony at the back of the villa, looking towards the river, is very pretty. The gardens and shrubberies are exceedingly well laid out, and the collection of hot-house plants very choice.

A ticket of admission is required to see this villa, which must be procured from the office of the palace. It should be visited rather early in the afternoon, so as to give the traveller time to have a good view from the Sparrow Hills, the proper hour for which is towards sunset. The Kremlin faces these hills, and as the traveller gazes on it he will picture to himself what must have been the feelings of the French army when they caught the first view of the golden minarets and starry domes. After traversing the dreary plains of Lithuania, and fighting, with fearful loss, their way up to this spot, the limit of their long career, no wonder that those weary legions, unable to suppress their joy, shouted with one voice, "Moscow."

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2. *Simonoff Monastery.*—Standing on the highest ground near Moscow, the tall belfry of the Simonoff affords a finer and fuller view of the city than even the tower of Ivan Veliki or the Sparrow Hills. It is at least one hour's drive from the centre of Moscow, but should be visited at any sacrifice.

The *Simonoff Monastery*, founded in 1370 by St. Sergius, was removed to its present site about the year 1390. It was anciently the most important monastery in Russia, and as such was enriched by princely and private gifts of immense value. A great number of villages once belonged to it, and, until 1764, as many as 12,000 male serfs. In 1612, notwithstanding the resistance offered by the stout defenders of its castellated walls, the Simonoff fell into the hands of the Lithuanians and Poles, who sacked it. During the plague of 1771 it was made a Quarantine station, and in 1788 it was suppressed as a monastery, and converted into a military hospital. In 1795, however, the Simonoff was restored to its original dedication, its prosperity being only once more checked, in 1812, when several of the buildings were burned down. There are 6 churches within the walls. The most ancient is the Cathedral of the Assumption, a massive building in the Byzantine style, founded about the year 1379, and consecrated 1405. An image in the ikonostas or altar-screen is pointed out as having been that with which St. Sergius blessed Dimitry of the Don when he set out to fight the Tartars. The cupola was gilt in 1836. The wall, 2700 ft. in length, was built in the earlier part of the 16th centy. The towers are 85 to 126 ft. in height. There is a subterranean passage from one of these to the pond in the vicinity, much frequented by the believing sick. There are many costly vestments to be seen in the Sacristy, as well as a gold cross, studded with precious stones; the Gospels in a binding of gold and jewels, presented in 1683 by Mary, the daughter of Alexis; gold vessels weighing 3 lbs.; and many other ecclesiastical treasures. St. Jonah, subsequently Metropolitan of all Russia, lived here as a monk in the 15th centy.

But the great attraction of this monastery is the belfry, 330 ft. high, erected between 1839 and 1844, at the expense of a merchant of Moscow, who gave the sum of 400,000 rubles (banco), in houses and shops, towards its construction.

Under the guidance of the bell-ringer, the traveller will ascend to the very cupola, and look out of a small window, which his guide will open. Unfortunately the bell-ringer explains the magnificent panorama in Russian, but he can point out any locality that may be mentioned.

The nearest white walls are those of the Danilof Monastery, founded in 1272 by the canonized Prince Daniel of Moscow, but rebuilt in the reign of John the Terrible. There is nothing to see in it except the silver shrine of the founder.

Beyond the Danilof will be seen the red walls of the Donskoi Monastery (*vide* Description), and further still is

the tall, golden-crowned belfry of the Novo Devichi (*see* under). The Sparrow Hills will be seen in the vicinity of the Donskoi.

In the cemetery within the Simonoff are buried many remarkable men, and amongst them, under the refectory, Field-Marshal Bruce, of Scottish origin.

Near the monastery is a small Reformatory for youthful criminals, founded in 1864 by a Society for the Diffusion of Christian Knowledge. It is the first establishment of the kind in Russia Proper. It holds 15 boys, and is supported by private subscription. Travellers are invited to inspect this "Ispravitelnyi Priyut," conducted by Prof. Kapoustine.

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3. *Novospaski Monastery.*—On the road to the Simonoff, as well as in returning to Moscow, the visitor will pass a very large monastery, called the Novospaski (New Passion), removed to its present site in 1490. In it were buried the principal members of the Romanoff family, before it became a dynasty, and a palace within it, now destroyed, was for some time occupied by the Nun Martha, mother of the first Romanoff sovereign, and who lies buried under the floor of the cathedral. There are 5 churches within its walls. The cathedral is profusely decorated with fresco-paintings, representing the genealogy of the sovereigns of Russia from St. Olga to the Tsar Alexis, and the descent of the kings of Israel. On either side of the staircase leading up to the cathedral are representations of the Greek philosophers Solon, Plato, Ptolemy, Plutarch, &c. Behind the altar-screen are portraits of the ten patriarchs of Russia. All these frescoes, with the exception of the representation of the Last Judgment on the W. wall of the cathedral, were restored in 1837. The male visitor should go behind the altar-screen, and see near the right wing of the Ikonostas the remarkable frescoes of the 17th centy., depicting the founders of the ch., the Tsars Michael and Alexis. Many of the ancient Boyar families of Russia are buried here, but the grave of most interest to the foreign visitor is that which will be found in the court of the monastery, to the rt. on entering within its walls. The inscription on the tomb records the death of the Nun Dosythea, who was no other than the Princess Tarakanova, daughter of the Empress Elizabeth and of her chancellor Razumofsky. It will be remembered that this princess was personated by an impostor, who was perfidiously seized by Gregory Orloff at Naples, and conveyed in a Russian ship to St. Petersburg, where she died, in the fortress, although not by drowning during an inundation, as assumed by the painter of a well-known picture exhibited at Paris in 1867.

The walls of this monastery have frequently repelled the enemies of Moscow. They were originally built of wood in 1571, in expectation of the inroad of Khan Divlet-Ghirei. In 1591, when the Khan invaded Moscovia, this monastery, like the Simonoff and the Daniloff, was turned into a fortress. It was again put into a defensive condition in 1613 and 1618, when the Poles occupied the city. The present walls of stone were built between 1640 and 1642, at the expense of the Tsar Michael and his mother, Martha. They have a circumference of about 430 Eng. fms., and their height is about 4 fms.

The *belfry*, which rises 235 ft., is a very handsome object. Commenced in 1759, it was completed in 1785.

In the neighbourhood of this monastery the visitor will be struck by the remains of a gate in the Russo-Byzantine style of architecture. It is said to have belonged to an archiepiscopal palace which once stood there. The old gate now leads to the Krutitski barracks. The ch. next to it is the parish ch. of the Assumption, "*Na Krutitsakh*," the name of the locality.

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4. *Novo-Devichi Convent,* opposite the Sparrow Hills, between the Mosk-

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va and the Deviché-polé, or Maidens' Field, where the populace is entertained at the coronation of emperors. It was founded in 1524 by Vassili Ivanovitch, Grand Duke of Moscow, in commemoration of the capture of Smolensk, which was celebrated for its miraculous image of the Virgin, once deposited at Moscow, but restored to Lithuania in 1456. A copy of that image was transferred from the Cathedral of the Assumption to this convent on its foundation, and is now shown in the principal ch. Richly endowed, it became a refuge for Tsarinas who renounced the world. Boris Godunof and his sister Irene, widow of the Tsar Theodore, the last of the Ruriks, retired here; but the patriarch, accompanied by the clergy and people, came to entreat Boris, in 1598, to assume the reins of power, which had been in the hands of a Council for 6 weeks, and took him hence in state to the palace of the Kremlin: 12 years later the Novo-Devichi was the scene of sanguinary conflicts with the Poles, and it was at last burnt down and destroyed. It was, however, restored by the Tsar Michael. Sophia, the ambitious sister of Peter the Great, was confined here. Having incited the Streltsi to revolt against her brother during his absence abroad, she was forced to take the veil under the name of Susannah, and died in this convent under the strictest surveillance in 1704. She lies buried in the ch., together with several other princesses. The Foundling Hospital established here by Peter I., in 1725, when the number of children amounted to 250, was abolished on the construction of the great Foundling Hospital. The convent suffered but little from the approach of the French in 1812, the King of Naples having ordered that Divine service should be continued as usual; but on the retreat of Napoleon, the belfry and other buildings were only saved from being blown into the air by the intrepidity of Sarah and a few other nuns, who bravely extinguished the matches that were to have fired a train of gunpowder. There are 6 churches within the convent.

5. *Donskoi Monastery.*—This building is also a considerable way out of town, beyond the Kaluga Gate. It was founded in 1592, by the Tsar Theodore, in gratitude for a victory over Kazy Girey, Khan of the Crimea, obtained on this very spot by the miraculous interposition of the Virgin Mary, whose image was presented to the monastery by the Cossacks of the Don, whence its name. A church procession still celebrates the defeat of the Tartars on the 19th (31st) Aug. It was once endowed with 7000 serfs, and 6 inferior monasteries were subject to it. The principal ch., of red brick, was built in 1684 by Catherine, sister of Peter the Great. The frescoes on the walls were painted in 1785 by an Italian. The image of the Virgin of the Don will be seen in the altar-screen, ornamented with precious stones. The altar below was erected at the expense of the Tsars of Georgia. The 2nd ch., dedicated to the same Virgin, was built in 1592, and its chapels in 1659; 2 of the other chs. were constructed in 1714, the 5th is still more modern. The walls and towers were finished in 1692, having been commenced by the sister of Peter the Great. The cemetery is an object of great interest, being the last resting-place of many celebrated men and families. The tomb of Count Woronzoff, many years ambassador in England, bears the only inscription legible to the Western traveller, who should not fail to drive here in the cool of the evening, and stroll or sit under the trees in the churchyard, one of the favourite resorts of the Moscovites.

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6. *Preobrajenskoyé Kladbistché*, or *Transfiguration Cemetery.*—Travellers studying the Russian Church should endeavour to see some of the places of worship of the Dissenters. The sect of Bespopovstchina, or those who do not recognise any priesthood or sacraments, may be seen at the above cemetery, so called from its having been a burying-ground and quarantine-station during the plague of 1771, but in reality an ecclesiastical establishment

and workhouse, under the supervision of the Philanthropical Society. The principal chapel was converted into an orthodox ch. in 1852, when permission was granted to perform Divine service in it according to the ritual used prior to the innovations of Nicon. It may be entered freely. The sect of Bespopovstchina is one of the most numerous of the subdivisions of Russian dissent, and is remarkable as being strongly opposed to the civil power, which they only profess to recognise under compulsion. Even the Emperor is styled by them "the Antichrist," and no prayers are offered up for the reigning house in their churches. The singing will be found very peculiar, and especially that of the women, who perform Divine service in a chapel apart from the men.

On the entry of the French into Moscow the Bespopovstchina welcomed them with a pie filled with ducats and with a white bull. Napoleon gave them a pass of safe-conduct and a guard of soldiers. The services of the "Popovstchina," or sect who have a priesthood, and who only adhere to the old form of worship, may be seen at the "Rogojskoyé Kladbistché."

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7. *Petrofski Park and Palace.*—If the traveller be in Moscow during summer, he should drive through the Petrofski Park, beyond the Tver Gate. The palace was commenced in 1775, and finished in the reign of Paul. The Emperor occasionally visits it, and reviews are held in the field opposite. There is also a race-course in the vicinity for trotting-matches. Napoleon retired to this palace after the Kremlin became untenable.

Sax's Garden, within this park, is a favourite resort on summer evenings, when a band plays, and a short distance out of the park is *Petrofskoé-Razumovskoé*, a very pretty garden, open to the public.

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8. *Sokolniki*, the People's Park.—Travellers should drive there to see the style of Russian vehicles and the manner of holiday-making. Sunday is a favourite day for picnics; but the 1st (13th) May is more especially the day of gathering.

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9. *Zoological Gardens.*—The Imperial Acclimatisation Society of Russia founded this garden on some land granted by H. I. M., and embracing about 30 acres, very prettily laid out. The margins of 2 large ponds are planted with the willow, the birch, and the fir. In summer the greater part of the animals are out in the open air, but in winter they are comfortably housed in buildings. The bisons from the province of Grodno and some species of antelope are among the most remarkable animals in the collection, which comprises the usual specimens of a menagerie. A band enlivens the scene, which will be found crowded with Moscow *élégants*. In winter ice-hills and skating attract many visitors to these gardens. Open daily from 11 A.M. to dusk; admission 20 copecks.

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10. *The Hermitage Gardens.*—A place of amusement every night during summer. The grounds are most tastefully laid out. In addition to many other attractions, the gipsies sing here their wild melodies, frequently accompanied by dances. From time immemorial the female gipsies of Moscow have been much addicted to the vocal art, and bands of them have sung for pay in the halls of the nobility, or upon the boards of the theatre. Some first-rate singers have been produced amongst them, whose merits have been acknowledged by the most fastidious foreign critics. It must not of course, be supposed that the generality of these gipsies are exquisite vocalists: the majority follow the occupation, but are very bad singers; many of them obtain a livelihood by singing and dancing at taverns and on the race-course; at the fairs of Nijni and Smolensk they also muster in great strength. Their songs are in

Russian and in their own dialect. In the provincial towns they follow the profession for which they are so admirably fitted by education, horse-dealing and hocussing. Their personal attractions are sometimes considerable; and on great occasions they are arrayed in splendid dresses, and sparkle with jewels.

Ladies may visit these gardens. There are, moreover, several *guinguettes* in the neighbourhood of Moscow, where the male traveller may study "life." Marina-Rostcha, frequented by the native merchants, is one of these.

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11. *Promenades.*—The middle classes walk in the gardens of the Kremlin in the fine spring evenings. At the foot of the wall a number of artificial hills have been raised, where, on holidays, bands are placed. These hills are hollowed out beneath and supported by pillars, and the benches with which they are provided afford cool resting-places for the weary.

The Tver Boulevards, surrounding the Beloi Gorod, are pleasant and fashionable, though less agreeable than the Alexander Garden. The Boulevards are broad walks laid out with trees, shrubs, and parterres, far more rural and pleasing than the formal lime avenues of Berlin. During the Easter and Carnival weeks they are greatly frequented by the citizens in their sledges, and the numerous booths give them all the appearance of a fair.

The traveller should on no account leave Moscow without seeing the Kremlin by moonlight. The Flower Market is a pleasant lounge in summer.

THEATRES, CLUBS, ETC.

Theatres.—Moscow possesses two theatres almost adjoining each other, and facing the walls of the Kitai-Gorod. The "Bolshoi" Theatre is the largest of the two. The inside of the house, which is most elegantly fitted up, will hold about 1500 persons. It was destroyed by fire in 1852, and reopened in 1856. The receipts are about 300*l.* a night. Two companies perform here—the Russian Opera, and the Ballet.* The Russian Opera and Ballet 3 times a week, between 1st (13th) May and 1st (13th) September, and almost daily at other seasons. Stalls for Ballet and Russian Opera 1 to 3 r.; boxes 5 to 10 r.

The lesser theatre, for Russian drama and high comedy, is open all the year round. It will hold 500, and its receipts are about 100*l.* when full. If the traveller have time, he may find it instructive to attend a Russian drama or comedy, for, although he may not understand the dialogue, he may study the manners and customs of the country as depicted on the stage. The plays of Gogol and Ostrofski are particularly worth seeing.

There are also theatrical representations during summer in the Petrofski Park. The first theatre in Moscow was built in 1780 by an Englishman of the name of Maddox.

Hinné's Circus is in Wosdwijenka-st. Boxes 5 to 6 rs.; Stalls, 1 r. 50 c.

Clubs.—The principal club at Moscow, as at St. Petersburg, is called the "English Club." It was established by an English merchant in the reign of Catherine II., and has flourished ever since, with the exception of a short period of suspension during the reign of the Emp. Paul. Travellers are easily admitted on application to a member. All the newspapers may be seen there, and it is a place where the affairs of the nation are discussed every evening over a cigar and a cup of tea.

The *Merchants' Club* is well supported, and is still easier of access. The papers may likewise be read there.

The *Post Office* is a large building on the road to the St. Petersburg Rly. Stat. Letters are distributed at about 3 P.M., and must be posted overnight at the hotels, or at the station before the departure of the train at noon.

English Chapel.—There is Divine

* The Italian Opera has been discontinued, owing to the absence of funds, but the traveller should inquire whether it has not been again opened.

Service every Sunday, at 11 A.M., at the British chapel in Chernishefski Péréulok. Established 1825. The English residents at Moscow and the neighbourhood are more than 500 in number.

Roman Catholic Chapels.—There are 2 Roman Catholic chapels at Moscow:—

1. German chapel, dedicated to St. Peter and St. Paul, in Little Lubianka-street. Mass at 8, 9, and 10 o'clock on week-days, and on Sundays at 8, 9, 10, and 11 o'clock; vespers at 5 P.M.

2. French chapel, dedicated to St. Louis; entrance either from Great or Little Lubianka-street. Mass at 9 and 10 o'clock on week-days, and at 10 and 11 A.M. on Sundays; vespers at 5 P.M.

British Consulate.—There is a British Consul at Moscow. His address will easily be ascertained.

ROUTE 7.

MOSCOW TO TROITSA MONASTERY (TROITSKAYA-SERGIEVA LAVRA).

By rail in 2 h. 20 m., distance 40 m.; fare 2 rs. each way; 3 trains a day. (This line is being extended to Yaroslaf.)

The facility with which this historical monastery can now be visited leaves the traveller no excuse for neglecting a pilgrimage to the shrine of St. Sergius, its founder and patron. This is the Canterbury of Russia, and a day may well be devoted to it. St. Sergius, the son of a boyar of Rostof, at the head of twelve disciples, established a monastery on this spot about the year 1342. His piety, and the honour conferred on him by the Patriarch of Constantinople, soon rendered him and his brotherhood famous. The princes of Moscow sought his counsel, and the oft-mentioned Dimitry of the Don was blessed by him before he set out for the battle of Kulikova. Two monks from this monastery, Osliabia and Peresvet, fought by the side of the victorious prince, and one of them fell dead, together with his Tartar adversary, in single combat.

The intervention of St. Sergius on this memorable occasion was rewarded by large grants of lands, and thenceforth the monastery grew rich and powerful; its abbot, however, the holy Sergius, remaining, as before, simple, self-denying, and laborious, and cutting wood and fetching water to the last. His right to canonization was still further established by the visitation (recorded in the annals of the Russo-Greek Church) of the Holy Virgin, who appeared in his cell, accompanied by the apostles Peter and John, about the year 1388. He died in 1392. The Tartar hordes of Khan Edigei laid waste this holy habitation in 1408, and it was only re-established, together with the present Cathedral of the Trinity, in 1423. Thirty monasteries were subsequently attached to it, and much land, until, in 1764, St. Sergius was the possessor as well as the patron of more than 106,000 male serfs. The most prominent portion of the history of the monastery is the siege, by 30,000 Poles, under Sapieha and Lisofski, in 1608, which was only raised, after sixteen months, on the approach of a large Russian force. Later again, after the election of Michael Romanoff, Ladislaus of Poland, styling himself Tsar of Moscovy, besieged the Troitsa Monastery once more, but he was repulsed by the brotherhood. When the Poles were in possession of Moscow, the monks of St. Sergius rendered considerable assistance to their countrymen in the shape

of supplies in bread and money. The most interesting fact, however, in the records of the Troitsa Monastery is, that it was the place of refuge on two occasions of Peter the Great and his brother John, when they fled from the insurgent Streltsi. Since then the repose of the monks has not been disturbed by political events. The French, in 1812, went half-way towards the monastery, but returned without the expected booty.

The plague and the cholera have never ventured within the holy walls, which were founded in 1513 and finished in 1547. They extend 4500 feet, and are from 30 to 50 feet high, with a thickness of 20 feet. They were put in order by Peter the Great, but their present appearance is due to a later period. Eight towers form the angles; one of them, of Gothic architecture, is surmounted by an obelisk, terminating in a duck carved in stone, to commemorate the fact of Peter the Great having practised duck-shooting on a neighbouring pond.

There are 10 churches within the monastery. The most ancient is the Cathedral of the Trinity. The shrine of St. Sergius stands within it, weighing 936 lbs. of pure silver. The relics of the saint are exposed to view. In the altar-screen, in a glass case, will be seen the staff and other ecclesiastical appurtenances of the patron. Two pictures of the saint, painted on portions of his coffin, are suspended on the walls. That near the shrine was carried into battle by the Tsar Alexis and by Peter the Great, and the Emperor Alexander I. was blessed with it in 1812. On a silver plate at the back of the image are recorded the several military occasions at which it assisted. The interior of the cathedral is replete with massive silver ornaments, and in the archbishop's stall is a representation of the Last Supper, of which the figures are of solid gold, with the exception of Judas, who is of brass. All the images are adorned with precious stones. The small chapel alongside was added in 1552, rebuilt in 1623, and again in 1779 and 1840. Next to this is a small chapel, erected over the supposed site of the cell in which the Holy Virgin appeared to St. Sergius. The large church, with 5 cupolas, was consecrated in 1585, and is called the Assumption of the Virgin. The frescoes were painted in 1681. One of its altars was consecrated in 1609, during the roar of the Polish artillery, and devoted to prayer for deliverance from the scurvy, of which disease 3000 of the inmates of the monastery had already perished. The large two-headed eagle in wood commemorates the concealment of Peter the Great under the altar during the insurrection of the Streltsi.

Off the S.W. angle of the church, in a chapel, is a well dug by St. Sergius, and discovered in 1644, at a time when the monastery was in great need of fresh water. Between the Assumption and the belfry stands a monument erected in 1792, on which the principal events in the history of the monastery are recorded. The fourth church, "The Descent of the Holy Ghost," was founded, after the capture of Kazan, by the Tsar Ivan Vassilevitch in person. The tomb of Maximus, a learned Greek, stands in a small chapel close by. The next church in importance is that of "Sergius Radonejski," with an immense refectory and a gallery all round, built in 1692. The iron roof, added in 1746, after a fire, is of a very peculiar mechanical construction. Over the church is a depository of nearly 4000 old books and MSS., amongst the most remarkable of which is a copy of the Evangelists on parchment, attributed to the early part of the 13th cent.

The *belfry* near the Church of the Assumption was designed by Rastrelli, and finished in 1769. It is remarkable for its height and architecture, and rises 290 ft. from the ground. The bell in the second tier weighs nearly 65 tons. Of the many other buildings within the walls of the monastery, we may mention the Palace, built by Peter I., now occupied by the Ecclesiastical Academy, which alone, as the principal seat of priestly instruction, is well worthy of a visit. The learned and obliging rector willingly converses with visitors in one of the dead languages.

Another church has been added to

the many sacred edifices already contained within the walls of the Troitsa Mon. It was dedicated Aug. 5, 1867, to "Philaret the Benefactor" on the occasion of the 50th anniversary of the Episcopate of the Metropolitan Philaret, who has since been buried within it. The venerable prelate died 19 Nov. 1867, O.S.

The *Sacristy* of the Monastery occupies four rooms in a detached building, and is the object of paramount curiosity to most travellers. Its principal contents must be specified and preluded by a few observations on the art treasures of Russia.

It would be futile to expect the monastic libraries and treasures of Russia to be rich in antiquities of the kind that may be found in the more southern parts of Europe. Works of art of even mediæval date are exotic in Russia if they be works of art at all. In other countries—in Italy, in France, Spain, England, even in Germany, and everywhere in the Levant—the historian and the antiquary tread on ground more or less classic. The soil beneath their feet is at a greater or less depth Roman. That of Russia is Sclavonic with alternating strata of Tartar dominion. Her only link with the classical associations of Byzantium and Rome is that of the marriage of Ivan Vassilevitch of Moscovy with the niece of the last Palæologus emperor,—a link, indeed, and the last, in the long chain of Byzantine records, but from which depends whatever of inheritance Russia may claim in the nominal empire of the East. Her Church was of earlier origin, but the Christianity of the age of St. Vladimir has bequeathed to a later period little indeed of its material productions in the form of manuscripts or ornaments. One of the oldest—if the date assigned to it be true—is the volume in the Troitsa Monastery, with the asserted date of the twelfth century. It is stated to be a copy of the Scriptures, brought from Mount Athos.

As might be expected, however, the greater part of the treasures of this place of pilgrimage belong to dates much later than that claimed for this MS.

Such is the resplendent copy of the Gospels given by the Tsar Michael in 1632, the covers of which are beautifully ornamented with floral and arabesque patterns in enamel-work. A large cross, with rubies of fine colour, is emblazoned on them, in contrast with emeralds and sapphires of great size and beauty. There is also a mitre that belonged to the Archimandrite Warlaam, a gift from the Empress Anne, and conspicuous for the fine spinel rubies and large pearls with which it is adorned.

A printed volume of the Church service adorned with illuminations and a minute copy written in golden letters on Persian vellum of the thinnest and most delicate texture, hardly thicker than goldbeater's skin, are well worthy of notice.

The rich robes worn by the priesthood in the gorgeous ceremonial of the Russian Church furnish excellent objects on which wealth may be accumulated in a form naturally precious in the eyes of the dwellers in a monastery. The jewelled robes preserved in this far-famed fortress-shrine are hardly if at all inferior in costliness to those contained in the cathedrals within the precinct of the Moscow Kremlin. Imperial personages have vied with each other in the richness of their gifts, and even the pearl headdress that adorned the brows of Catherine II. at her coronation finds a home here as an ornament on a priestly vestment. But the interest attaching to these, as also to the enormously rich crosses and other paraphernalia of the Church service at the Troitsa, lies rather in their wealth of jewellery, and in the high personages whose gifts they were, than in the beauty of the art displayed in them or in the antiquity of which they may boast.

Among the more exceptional of such objects, however, is a casket, richly adorned with cloisonnée enamel-work, perhaps of Venetian manufacture; while of the diamonds in a crown presented by the Empress Elizabeth some 3 or 4 might worthily adorn an imperial diadem. A crucifix, with a

Siberian aquamarine of large size and fine colour, was also an imperial present in 1797; and two singular objects are shown as natural productions in the form of representations, the one of a natural cross, in a sort of jasper or hornstone, formed by two white veins crossing one another in the brown material of the stone; the other, an agate, adorned by half a dozen fine garnets. In the material of the agate a pattern is seen, pretty accurately representing a monk in adoration before a crucifix. It is produced in part, no doubt, by the pattern naturally assumed by the coloured portion of the stone, which has suggested to an ingenious hand to help the illusion by a little artifice, the concealment of which is considerably aided by the difficulty of closely inspecting the stone. It may possibly prove to consist of two slabs cemented together.

The sapphires forming a cross on an altar-cloth of the date of 1795 are marvellously beautiful; nor should notice be omitted of an altar-cloth of the date of Boris Godunoff, adorned with an embroidery of magnificent pearls, and with many sapphires and emeralds *en cabochon* disposed in orderly arrangement among them and equally lavish in their costliness. Mingled with all this magnificence will be seen the wooden vessels and coarse woollen robes of the founder, more highly esteemed by the pilgrims than the rich vestments of his successors.

The shells exhibited as relics of the Polish siege will, on inspection, prove to bear the Napoleonic cipher.

Travellers should inspect the studios of painting and photography within the Monastery. Beautiful specimens of ecclesiastical painting may be purchased there at a very moderate price.

At about 1½ m. from the Monastery is the hermitage or "skit" of Gethsemane, founded, in 1845, by Philaret, Metropolitan of Moscow. There are carriages in attendance at the rly. stat. to take the traveller to this prettily-situated retreat. The ch. is remarkable on account of the simplicity of its interior. The vessels used in the services are of wood, and the altar itself, after an ancient model, is of oak. Women are not admitted except on the 16th (28th) and 17th (29th) August, the feast-days of the Church, which is dedicated to the ascent of the Holy Virgin into heaven. There are some catacombs in the vicinity, through which the traveller will pass with a shudder when he hears that the cells are inhabited by human beings, some of whom are fulfilling vows of seclusion from man and the light of day. There are still larger catacombs, about 3 m. farther, where each cell is surrounded by a wooden wall, and where the solitary recluse is effectually barred out from all communication with the world. There are some very curious toys, spoons of wood, little crosses, and other pilgrims' tokens, to be purchased at the Troitsa Monastery, as well as at the hermitage of Gethsemane. The refectory should be visited during the hours of meals, when hospitality will be warmly offered to the stranger on a pilgrimage to St. Sergius.

There is a good *Hotel* opposite the Monastery. Excellent refreshments may also be procured at the Railway Station.

ROUTE 8.

MOSCOW TO NIJNI NOVGOROD, WITH BRANCH LINE TO SHUYA AND IVANOVO, AND EXCURSION UP THE OKA TO MUROM, ELATMA, AND KASIMOF.

To Nijni Novgorod by rail in 12 hrs. by express every night during the fair, held between 27th July and 22nd

September, new style. (N.B.—the best time to visit Nijni Novgorod is at the end of August, new style.) 1st class, 12 rs. 30 c. Ordinary train once a day. Distance from Moscow 410 v. (273 m.). Moscow time kept at stations.

40 m. Pavlofsk Stat., Buffet. A small town on the Kliasma, 3500 Inhab., 12 silk-weaving and 6 chintz factories.

77 m. Petushki Stat. Buff.

118 m. Vladimir Stat. Buff. Chief town of province of same name; 15,000 Inhab. Stands high on the l. bank of the Kliasma. The small river Lybed divides it into two parts. The ancient quarter of the town is surrounded by three walls, which form the Kremlin, the Kitai-gorod, and the Beloi-gorod, as at Moscow. Vladimir, founded, according to some authorities, by Vladimir Monomachus, in the 12th centy., and according to others by George Dolgorouky, was once the capital of an important principality, frequently ravaged by the Tartars.

There are 22 churches at Vladimir, of which the most remarkable are—

1. Uspenski (Assumption) Cathedral. Founded 1154 by Prince Andrew Bogoliubski, and finished 1160, in a style of great magnificence. It was, however, destroyed by fire in 1184, and restored in 1189 and 1193. During the invasion of Baty Khan in 1238, when the Tartars took Vladimir by assault, the Princess of Vladimir, her 3 sons and daughter and other relations, the Bishop of Vladimir, the clergy, Boyars and others, shut themselves up in the cathedral, but the Tartars piled wood around it, and destroyed by fire both the edifice and those who had taken refuge within it. Some years after this catastrophe the cathedral was restored, and long remained the first ch. in Russia. Even after the seat of sovereignty had been removed from Vladimir to Moscow (in 1328) the Grand Duke of Moscow continued to be crowned in the cathedral until 1432. It was thoroughly restored in 1774 and again in 1834. Some of the pictures in the altar-screen are ancient, that of the Holy Virgin having been painted in 1299. The relics of 3 canonized princes of Vladimir repose in shrines of silver. A great number of princes of Vladimir are buried within. There is also a monument to Count Robert Woronzoff, who died 1783. The sacristy is full of antiquities, such as the robes of the old princes, and a copy of the 'Evangelist' of 1541. A picture by Tonci, representing the baptism of the Kievites in the reign of Vladimir, will likewise be shown.

2. Cathedral of Demetrius of Solun, within the Kremlin. It was built 1194. The white sandstone which forms its walls is curiously carved with representations of animals, birds, &c. Having been restored by order of the Emperor Nicholas, it is one of the best specimens extant of Russo-Byzantine church architecture. One of the finest monuments of civil architecture of the same period will be found in the "Golden Gate" (Zolotya Vorota), built in 1158 as a *porta triumphalis*. The ancient ch. above it was destroyed during the Tartar invasion; the present edifice is modern. The old earthern walls of the town may be partly traced. There are many fine buildings of modern date at Vladimir, such as the Assembly House of the Nobility, with a fine hall, and a gymnasium with a good library. The city is celebrated for its fruit, particularly for its fine cherries. Many Veché or Wittenagemotes were held here in the earlier days of Russian history. The province is one of the richest in Russia for agricultural produce and manufactures.

149 m. Shuisko-Ivanofsko Stat. Buff.

At Novki, between these two stats., a branch line runs on to Shuya and Ivanovo, two important centres of the cotton industry. There is no hotel at either of those places, but as travellers will only go there on business, they will easily find accommodation at the houses of the Russian millowners, or in those of the English master spinners and weavers.

158 m. Kovrof Stat., small town on rt. bank of the Kliasma. Pop. 4000.

195 m. Viazniki Stat. Buff. Town of 5000 Inhab. Trade in grain and celebrated for linen manufactures.

225 m. Gorohovets Stat. Buff. Small town on Kliasma, still in province of Vladimir.

NIJNI NOVGOROD STAT.

Hotels.—These are decidedly uninviting, and the traveller is recommended to go through the fair systematically, in order to return by the express train, which leaves at night. Everything may be seen in a day, and nothing should detain him except the desire of making some further purchases, or of seeing something of "life" à l'Asiatique in a special quarter of the town. The Hôtel de Russie, or Lobasheff, near the Kremlin, is considered the best. There is an hotel kept by Nikita Egoroff at the fair. Sobolef's hotel, also near the fair, combines the character of a public bath with that of a tolerable inn, fitted with modern appliances for comfort. But unless the traveller secure rooms beforehand, it is almost impossible to find shelter at any price during the fair. The usual charge is 9*s.* to 12*s.* a night for a room. In the case of ladies, it is advisable to make the railway station the head-quarters of the party for the day, and to sally out from it in various directions.

Smoking is prohibited at Nijni, within the precincts of the fair, under a fine of 25 rs., which will be inflicted by the Cossacks and police on duty.

Drojkies may be hired for 9*s.* to 12*s.* for the day.

There is generally a good ballet at the theatre. For other sights and amusements it will be necessary to consult an inhabitant of the town.

Nijni Novgorod, or *Lower Novgorod*, as distinguished from the Great Novgorod on the Volkhof. Pop. 40,000. Chief town of province of same name, and seat of the celebrated fair, situated at the confluence of the Volga and Oka rivers, in lat. 56° 30′ N. It was founded about 1222, and in 1237 was occupied by the Tartars, who also sacked it twice a century and a half later. Nijni, as an independent principality, was absorbed by that of Moscow in 1418. The town walls were built in the early part of the 16th centy. by a Venetian architect, but the fortress was originally constructed in 1372. The residence of the governor of the province, the courts of law, the barracks, arsenal, and telegraph station, are within the Kremlin, where there is also a monument to Minin and Pojarski, the two patriots who liberated their country from the Poles in 1612, Nijni being the birthplace of the former.

Churches.—1. Cathedral of the Transfiguration, "Spaspreobrajenié," founded in 1221. Minin lies buried there. 2. Cathedral of the Archangel, originally built in 1222, but reconstructed in 1620. A ch. in the lower part of the town is sure to arrest the eye on account of its eccentric colouring and peculiar architecture. This is the Church of the Nativity of the Holy Virgin (Rojdestva), built by a Stroganoff in 1719. There are 51 churches of the Russian communion, and 8 belonging to various other denominations.

Before going to the fair the traveller would do well to cross over to the higher part of the town, and ascend, through a narrow and very steep ravine, to Minin's tower (*Bashnia Minina*). From this great elevation the most picturesque panorama presents itself on every side. The fair spreads out like a vast town of shops, on a triangular piece of ground between the Oka and the Volga, which can be traced here for many miles, with its steamers, like so many straws, floating swiftly down to the distant Caspian, 1600 miles beyond. The forest of masts looks like a floating town, and covers the surface of the broad Oka almost completely, making the bridge of boats look superfluous. The quaint barges, coming as they do from the most distant parts of the empire, must be studied from below, where they will be seen discharging or taking in their cargoes, with the assistance of an army of ragged Tartar labourers. In an opposite direction the traveller will survey with interest

the low arched gates, the whitewashed towers, and crenellated walls of the ancient Kremlin, while the gay roofs of the houses, appearing from amidst the thick green foliage of numerous gardens, afford both beauty and diversity to the landscape.

Descending from the tower, the traveller should drive to the "Otkos" or terrace, built by order of the Emperor Nicholas, from which one of the most singular and extensive views in Europe will be obtained. As far as the eye can reach extends a vast alluvial plain, rich with harvest, and occasionally dotted with forests, while the Volga, flowing down from Tver, looks like a broad blue riband stretched over the country from one extremity of the horizon to the other. Much of the plain below is inundated in spring by the overflowing of the Volga, leaving a fertile deposit, which considerably enhances the value of the land.

The picturesque must now be left for the practical. The realities of the fair, including clouds of fine dust, unpaved and perhaps muddy streets, a heat sometimes tropical, a male population of unattractive appearance and unenticing fragrance, will be found in strong and unpleasant contrast to the scene just viewed; and we can only indemnify ourselves for the discomfort by plunging at once into the excitement of examining the shops and wares, the sellers and the purchasers. So much has been written about the Asiatic appearance of this mart that the traveller will feel a little disappointment in meeting no gorgeous Asiatics, no Chinamen, no wild-looking savages, and no Esquimaux; Persians, Armenians, and Tartars being apparently the only Asiatics present, and even those in no very great numbers. The men from Bukhara or Khiva are after all in dress and appearance only Tartars. But it is not so much the types of the population as the extent and nature of the trade which the traveller should observe, for he here witnesses one of those rude, ancient forms of buying and selling which the introduction of railways, and the establishment of banks and credit, must very soon render obsolete. The iron stored in the mile of shops where nothing but that metal is sold has been brought from Siberia at an immense expense for sale and distribution, perhaps within 100 miles of its place of production. Custom obliges the producers to offer their goods at established markets, at certain seasons of the year, involving a great loss of time in travelling, and adding to the price of the article. The sales being periodical and infrequent, dealers are forced to buy larger stocks than they otherwise would; consequently they require 12 months' and sometimes 2 years' credit, which is of course also paid by the consumer.

Railways have, however, not yet prejudiced the operations of the fair, because they do not extend farther E. than Nijni, and trade is very tenacious of old customs. Authentic records attest that mercantile gatherings were held at Nijni so early as 1366; and tradition points to a still earlier origin. Kazan, while an independent state, had a fair of its own, but Russian merchants were prohibited from resorting to it by John the Terrible. Another place of gathering was allotted to them on the banks of the Volga; but in 1641 a charter to a monastery dedicated to St. Macarius, and situated 71 m. below Nijni, removed the fair to that place. The monks of the monastery very cleverly made Nijni a place of religious as well as commercial resort, and levied taxes on the trade which they fostered. These were almost uninterruptedly in their hands until 1751, when the fair became the property of the State, and its revenues were farmed for about 150*l.* In the reign of the Emperor Paul the farmer of the duties engaged to build a new bazaar, and to pay 4500*l.* a year into the Exchequer. Between 1697 and 1790 the trade of the place had increased in value from 12,000*l.* to 4,500,000*l.* In 1824 the fair was removed from the low site which it occupied at Makarief to its present position. The bazaar, governor's house, and shops were erected by the government, which still levies about 8000*l.* a year to cover the expenses of constructions.

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The governor's house is the centre of the fair; the lower floor of his residence is converted into a bazaar for the sale of manufactured goods and fancy articles, principally of European production, although the stalls of hardware from Tùla, of silks from Persia, of precious stones and various curiosities from Bukhara and other parts of Central Asia, and of geological specimens and cut stones from Siberia, make it in reality the cosmopolitan centre of the mart. Travellers will be attracted by the goods of the Tartar, who pretends to owe allegiance to the Khan of Bukhara. Beware of talismans and turquoises that appear to be cheap; they will probably be found cheaper and more genuine at St. Petersburg. The malachite and lapis-lazuli ornaments and other stones from Siberia are sometimes good investments; but in buying lapis-lazuli be sure to rub the stone well on cloth, or some other material, to see if there are no white spots concealed with a preparation of wax and indigo. This precaution is necessary even at St. Petersburg. There is a stall held by a Russian for the sale of ornaments in gold and silver, set with Siberian and Persian stones. Curious belts of silver may be purchased, but not without long bargaining. It is always safe to offer half the sum first asked, and to approach gradually and with caution to an agreement. Select, and inquire the price of, all the articles you intend to purchase before making any offer, for the seller, once acquainted with your system of bargaining, increases his demands in proportion for any other articles you may wish to purchase.

There is a very good restaurant under the governor's house, where an excellent dinner may be obtained.

A boulevard extends from behind the official residence, leading to the cathedral, the Tartar mosque, and the Armenian church, which stand in laudable, tolerant juxtaposition. The shops along the boulevard are occupied by silversmiths, drapers, furriers, and drysalters. The plate and silver ornaments are very curious and pretty. Travellers generally purchase some small articles as keepsakes. Old silver is sometimes to be picked up; but in all these transactions it is necessary to have the assistance of a friend who understands the language, or that of an honest courier. The price of silver, however, is not so uncertain as that of other goods. The hall-mark is represented by the number 84. Behind these shops is the "Chinese row," easily recognised by its Chinese architecture. The tea-trade is not so flourishing as formerly, since the removal of the prohibition to import seaborne tea, which now stocks the market. The trade is now in a transition state, the sea-borne and the land-carriage tea alternately triumphing. Much depends upon the relative quantities offered for sale; the prices are sent down one year by an excessive importation, and they rise the next from a short supply; but in the course of time Canton and water-carriage will prevail, notwithstanding the ill-founded prejudice against that description of tea. The Russians, who are great tea-drinkers, are accustomed to the higher qualities of tea grown in the N. of China; but these are quite as easily obtained from Canton as from Kiakhta, and the sea-carriage has no deteriorating effect whatever. The Kiakhta tea itself is brought by water from Perm without injury. There are some kinds of tea, however, which scarcely ever enter into the English trade, viz. yellow and brick tea, the former of a delicious fragrance and very pale, but injurious to the nerves if taken frequently; it is handed round after dinner in lieu of coffee. The brick tea is consumed by the Kalmucks and Kirghizes of the Steppe. Specimens of these teas should be purchased by the traveller. The best yellow tea is about 35*s.* per pound, done up in Chinese boxes, which make very pretty presents.

The bazaar is surrounded by a small canal, for protection against fire, conflagrations being of frequent occurrence. The ground underneath is intersected by sewers or cloacæ of stone, which are entered by the small whitewashed towers so frequently seen. These vaulted passages are

flushed several times a day by pumps, which draw the water from the adjoining rivers. The sanitary precaution is much to be commended, and must have cost a considerable outlay.

But the bazaar built by the Emperor Alexander has too confined a space for the trade of Nijni. The fair now extends far beyond, to the very banks of the Volga and the Oka, with its rows of shops, its restaurants, and even its theatre. The "Siberian Line" skirts the Volga, and consists of innumerable warehouses of tea, cotton, iron, rags, &c. The wharves are well worthy of inspection, being quite 10 miles in length. It will interest the traveller to watch the sturdy Tartar labourers unloading the mediæval-looking craft, laden with grain, water-melons, hides, wooden boxes, wine-skins from the Caucasus, madder and cotton from Bukhara, and with almost every other description of merchandize that the earth yields or industry produces. The huge floating machines for towing up vessels are fast going out of use as the number of steam-tugs increases. There are no fewer than 400 steamers now on the Volga, most of them having been built in England and in Belgium. Some have been brought down in pieces, and put together; others have been skilfully piloted through the canals and rivers, which combine to form an uninterrupted fluviatile communication from one extremity of the empire to the other. It is an interesting fact that the first vessel of war ever built in Russia was launched at Nijni by a company of merchants from Holstein, who obtained permission in the 17th centy. to open a trade with Persia and India, by way of the Caspian. The vessel was called the Friedrich. The travels of Olearius were in connection with this undertaking.

The outskirts of the fair are more interesting than its centre for observation and study. The constant succession of carts in long strings; the crowds of labourers; the knots of earnest-looking traders with long beards; the itinerant vendors of liquid refreshments and white rabbit-skins; the greasy, slovenly monk collecting the kopecks of those who fear to withhold their charity lest their transactions be influenced by the Evil One; the frequent beggars, pleading for the most part that they have been burnt out, and showing the most dreadful-looking sores as evidence of their veracity:—all these men and things attest the present importance of the Fair of Nijni and the immense business which is transacted there. The sales and purchases represent the value of more than 16 millions sterling, which pass through the hands of 150,000 to 200,000 traders, that being the average number of those who assemble daily to exchange the produce of Europe for that of Asia. The bakers are bound to make daily returns of the quantity of bread which they sell, and it is in this manner that a rough estimate of the daily population is made.

Great quantities of dried fish are sold at Nijni. The annual value of the sturgeon, alone, taken in the Volga is estimated at 2½ millions of roubles, and above 30,000 barrels of Caviar have been despatched from Astrakhan in a single year.

Two other fairs are held at Nijni Novgorod, but they are very little visited by foreigners. The one, held in January, on the ice, at the mouth of the Oka, is devoted to the selling and buying of wooden wares, such as toys and boxes. Great numbers come in on this occasion from the neighbouring villages. In January, 1864, the ice on which the booths and inns were constructed gave way, and a considerable number of men, women, children, and horses miserably perished by drowning. The other fair, held on the 6th July (N.S.), is for the sale of horses.

The traveller may be inclined to enter some of the booths devoted to eating and drinking, where large masses of the population may be seen herded together, intent on some of the dishes described under the head of "Cuisine and Restaurants;" but he will probably content himself with the view from the tower and the terrace, with a rapid drive to the wharves and warehouses, and a saunter in the bazaar, where some small purchases may be effected.

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The more inquisitive traveller will, however, ask for the "Armenian Kitchen" or Restaurant, where he will get an exceedingly good and cheap dinner, of which the *menu* will be:—1, *Chihotma* or soup; 2, *Pillaw*; 3, *Shishlik*, or small pieces of mutton deliciously fried; 4, *Lulí-Kobal*; and 5, *Dolma*, meat served in vine-leaves. A very sound wine, "*Chichir*," completes the repast. Excellent horse-flesh is to be had at the Tartar Restaurant in the same neighbourhood.

EXCURSION UP THE OKA TO MUROM, ELATMA, AND KASIMOF.

Steamers leave Nijni 3 times a week for Elatma, on the Oka, one of the most important rivers in Russia (its length being 1400 v.), performing the voyage up stream in about 36 hrs., and returning to Nijni in about 30 hrs. The days are not given here for fear of changes. Inquire at the offices of the "Samolet Steam-ship Company" at Nijni. Leaving Nijni Novgorod at 11 A.M., the boat will be at daybreak abreast of

Pavlovo, a large village, of which the population is exclusively occupied in the production of cutlery, locks, &c. The scissors and knives of Pavlovo are superior in quality to those of Tula. Its locks, varying in price from 2 cop. to 20 r., are sold over Russia, and partly exported to Asia. A visit to this diminutive Sheffield will prove of great interest to the traveller who is studying the commercial development of Russia.

Murom will be reached in about 24 hrs. after leaving Nijni. This is a famous old town of 10,000 Inhab. It is supposed to have been founded by a Finnish tribe, which bore the same name, and which inhabited the banks of the Oka in the 9th centy. It became the seat of a principality in the 11th centy., under Gleb, son of St. Wladimir, and who reigned there until the year 1016. The principality then became subject to the Princes of Chernigoff, Rostof, and Riazan, and in 1353 to the principality of Wladimir. At last it was annexed to the principality or grand duchy of Moscow. It has been frequently devastated—in 1087 by the Bolgars, in 1096 by Isiaslav, son of Wladimir Monomachus, and thrice in the 13th centy. by the Tartars; while in the 17th centy. entire villages of fishermen were rooted out by the Poles. The old Kremlin walls were taken down in the last centy. Of the 14 churches in Murom the most remarkable are:—1, The Cathedral of the Nativity, built about 1170, on the hill of the Voévods, above the Oka. The founder, Prince George of Murom, and Prince David, with his consort Euphrosine (A.D. 1228), are buried within it. A fair is held round this cathedral on the 25th June (O.S.). 2, The Ch. of Our Lady of Kazan, built in the reign of John the Terrible; 3, The Nicologorod Ch., founded in the 17th centy.; 4, The Ch. of the Resurrection, built about 1650; and 5, The Ch. of Cosmo and Damian, attributed to the 14th centy.* There are 2 *monasteries* and 1 convent at Murom:—1, Monastery of the Transfiguration, known to have existed in the 11th centy. The son of Wladimir Monomachus, killed in 1096, was originally buried here, but his remains were removed later to the Cathedral of St. Sophia in Novgorod. 2, Monastery of the *Annunciation*. On its present site stood a ch. erected in the 12th centy., and which was restored in the 13th centy. In 1553 John the Terrible, passing through Murom on his way to the conquest of Kazan, swore on the tombs of the Princes of Murom, to build here a monastery in the event of his safe return. Its foundations were accordingly laid in 1555, and in 1563 the monastery and its ch. were completed. The holy relics of Prince Constantine of Murom, and of his sons Michael and Theodore, are exhibited

* One of these churches fell in with a crash early in 1868, but will be restored.

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in a silver shrine. The *Convent of the Trinity* was founded in 1642.

Trade.—Even in the 10th and 11th cents. Murom was a place of great trade, visited by the Bolgars, and by merchants from Chernigoff, Smolensk, Kief, Riazan, and even by Greek traders from the Crimea. Its dense and extensive woods were famed for their honey, and for the beasts of the chase that dwelt within them. They were also infested by bands of robbers, whose deeds are still told in nursery tales. The position of Murom, on the borders of a manufacturing district, on one side, and on those of a rich agricultural zone on the other, has greatly contributed to its present prosperity. There is a great trade at Murom in wheat, flax, linseed, and timber. In 1861 the town boasted of 10 linen manufactories, which produced goods of the value of half a million of roubles. It was formerly celebrated for its leather, but this industry is now on the decline. There are also 23 flour-mills in the neighbourhood of the town. Their produce is principally carried to Rybinsk on the Volga. Markets are held on Saturdays, and are more particularly animated in winter, when 3000 to 5000 sledge-loads of corn are brought into the town for sale. Immense quantities of fish are caught at Murom, as well as at other places on the Oka.

The *Vyksounski* iron-works are situated on the opposite bank of the river at about a day's journey from Murom. They are worked by an English company, under the superintendence of a resident English director. Large quantities of cast iron and rails are produced here, the ore being raised on the estate, which has been leased to the company by the Crown for a certain number of years. It is needless to say that the English or American traveller, wishing to see something of the mineral wealth of Russia, will meet with the greatest attention at Vyksa.

After passing a village called Doschaty, of which there is nothing to be said, the steamer will reach the utmost point at which the Oka is navigable, except by flat barges. This is

Elatma. Pop. 7000. It stands on the l. bank of the river, and is first mentioned in 1381, although it is supposed to have been founded by the Mestchera and Mordva tribes (*vide* Riazan). It was purchased by the principality of Moscow from its Prince, Alexander Unkovitch, of the Mestchera tribe, from whom are probably descended the present numerous Princes Mestchersky of Russia. In the centre of the town is a square, bordered by an ancient ditch. A monastery formerly stood there. The town carries on a small trade in grain, cattle, tallow, &c. Leaving the steamer here, the traveller must engage a peasant's cart and "troika" to take him to

Kasimof.—The town of Kasimof (Pop. 11,000), on the l. bank of the Oka, 136 v. E.S.E. from Riazan, is a place of very great trade, being in the centre of the water communication between Moscow and Nijni Novgorod, and on the high road from Astrakhan to both those cities. The corn of Tambof and Penza is brought there in large quantities for distribution over the less fertile parts of the provinces of Riazan and Wladimir, and the annual amount of business done is estimated at two and a half millions. The inhabitants of Kasimof are very industrious, and have such a high reputation for honesty that most of the waiters in the hotels at St. Petersburg and Moscow are "Kasimof Tartars." The principal industry of the town is the tanning of hides and the dressing of sheepskins. The bells of Kasimof are also much loved by the yamstchiks or postilions throughout Russia.

The town is remarkable as having been the seat of a small Tartar kingdom which existed until 1667. It was given by Basil the Dark to Kasim, a Tartar who emigrated to Russia in 1446, and became the ally of the sovereign of Moscow.

The horde of Kasimof did good

service during the wars of the princes of Moscow with the Tartars, Novgorodians, Livonians, and Poles. Its Tsars assisted John the Terrible in the capture of Kazan, 1552. The last Tartar ruler became a Christian and died in 1667, when his small dominions were incorporated with Russia. Peter the Great caused a considerable portion of the population to be removed to Voronej, where they were attached to the dockyards. The *mosque*, supposed to have been built by Kasim, is still extant, but the *minaret*, attributed to the same age, was rebuilt in the 18th century. There is a *mausoleum* near the mosque, erected by Shah Ali in 1555, and another outside the town, built in 1616, by the Tsarevitch Orslan. Inscriptions prove the tombs within it to be those of ancient Tsars of Kasimof. There is no trace of their old palace, and the foundations of the palace of Seid Burkhan, seen by Pallas, have been levelled to the ground by the present proprietor of the soil. There is a *convent* in the town, but the date of its establishment is unknown. The church within it was built 1715.

Instead of returning to Nijni Novgorod, travellers can post from Kasimof to Riazan (90 m.), and take rail there either southwards or for Moscow.

ROUTE 9.

VOLGA: TVER TO ASTRAKHAN.

(For journey to Tver and description the town, *see* Rte. 6.)

Ptolemy and other ancient geographers had little accurate knowledge respecting the Volga, and called it the Great River. Its classical name was Rha. In remote times it was the main artery of communication between Central Asia and the Black Sea. The Scythians and Sarmatians were anciently reputed as inhabiting its banks. The Huns, Khazars, and Bolgars subsequently formed powerful states on it; but the Throne of Russia having been removed to Vladimir, the Russians began to possess themselves of the course of the river. Nijni Novgorod was founded on it in the 13th cent. The Russian provinces suffered much from the inroads of the Tartars of the kingdom of Kazan. The latter became the tributaries of John III., and were finally incorporated by John the Terrible, who also seized the Tartar kingdom of Astrakhan, and thus obtained possession of the entire course of the Volga. But its navigation was long rendered unsafe by pirates. All the popular legends of the Volga are connected with deeds of plunder and bloodshed by the population along its banks. The rebels Stenka Razin and Pugachef were the last to disturb its tranquillity, and it is now a peaceful highway of commerce, uniting, by means of its affluents and with the assistance of several artificial canals, the Caspian with the White Sea and the Baltic.

The Volga rises in some small lakes about 47 m. S.W. of Valdai. At Tver, where it first becomes navigable by small steamers, it acquires a breadth of 100 fathoms, and a depth of about 1½ ft.

1. Boats leave Tver daily for *Yaroslaf*. The following towns are passed:—

Korchef, 57 m. from Tver.

Kaliazin, 120 m. from Tver.

Uglitch, 125 m. from Tver. 11,000 Inhab.

The latter is a town of considerable historical interest. The steamer stops here some hours. It is supposed to have been founded about A.D. 950. It was long governed by princes from

Wladimir. In 1237 the inhabitants submitted to the Tartars, who subsequently ravaged it during a quarrel with its prince. The town continued the scene of an incessant internecine war between rival princes, until John III. annexed it to Moscow. On the death of John the Terrible, in 1584, the Council of Boyars persecuted the family of his last consort, to whom he was married in 1580. She was exiled, with her son Dimitry (or Demetrius), to Uglitch, where the young prince was assassinated (*vide* Cath. of Assumption). Prince Gustavus, son of Eric King of Sweden, exiled from his country, was invited to Uglitch by the Tsar Boris Godunoff, who caused him to be imprisoned in the fortress of that town in 1611, on his refusal to marry his daughter. He was later removed to Yaroslaf and then to Kashin, where he died. On the death of Boris, the town was treacherously surrendered to the Poles by a citizen, when 20,000 of its inhabitants are stated to have been massacred and burnt in a huge bonfire. The monasteries on that occasion were pillaged of all their treasures. Fires and inundations in the 18th cent. complete the list of misfortunes to which the town has been a prey.

The palace of young Demetrius, built in 1462, stands in the principal square of the town. It has been restored.

Myshkin, 168 m. from Tver.

Mologa, 203 m. from Tver. The Tikhvin canal system begins here.

Rybinsk, 223 m. from Tver, Pop. 10,500, at the confluence of the Volga and Sheksna. Although only made a town in 1778, Rybinsk is one of the most important commercial centres of the empire, especially for grain. The Mariinsk canal system begins here. By it the grain and tallow from the provinces along the lower course of the river, are carried to St. Petersburg. The goods are transshipped in summer, at Rybinsk, into smaller vessels for the upper part of the Volga and the several fluviatile systems, employing 100,000 labourers. 4000 to 5000 vessels arrive there yearly, with cargoes valued at about 4,000,000*l.*; and 7000 to 8000 leave it with goods to the amount of 5½ millions sterling. Great detention is caused by the accumulation of so much shipping; and although the grain reaches Rybinsk about the end of April or the beginning of May (O.S.), it is seldom delivered at St. Petersburg before June or July. A railway is much needed to accelerate and cheapen the transport of such immense stores.

There are two hotels at Rybinsk, frequented by merchants. Travellers will do well to stay a day here, in order to acquire a proper appreciation of the immense resources of the Russian empire.

Romanoff-Borisoglebsk, 267 m. from Tver. 24 m. beyond is

Yaroslaf, Pop. 32,000, at confluence of Volga and Kotorosl, founded between 1025 and 1036; burnt by the Tartars in 1237; pillaged by pirates in 1371; and constantly embroiled in the wars of the princes. The English merchants had a factory here in the 16th centy., and laid the foundation of the commercial prosperity of the town, which deals principally in grain and iron. There is a large and celebrated linen manufactory here, estab. 1722. Mniczek (Mnishek) Marina, the wife of first of the many pretenders, was killed here in 1606. Yaroslaf surrendered to the Poles in 1608, who were, however, shortly after driven out. In 1612 and 1617 it was a point of gathering for the patriots under Pojarski and Minin. Biren, Duke of Courland, lived here in exile with his family between 1742 and 1761, and Prince Peter of Oldenburg was born in the town.

There are 77 churches in Yaroslaf. The chief of these is the Cath. of the Assumption, originally built in 1215. The present edifice, however, dates from 1646. The military standards of the militia raised in 1812, and 1853-1856, are kept in this church.

The best hotel is in Pastukhof's house, where a table-d'hôte is kept. There will soon be a railroad hence to Moscow.

2. There are no places of importance between Yaroslaf and

KOSTROMA (20,000 Inhab.), 340 m. from Tver.

Hotels: "London" and "Kostroma."

KOSTROMA was built in 1152 by George, surnamed Dolgoruki (Longitharm), son of Vladimir Monomachus. In 1271 Novgorod acknowledged the authority of the Prince of Kostroma, which then became the capital of Russia for about six years. Dimitry of the Don fled to this town on the invasion of Tokhtamysh (1382). The plague and a dreadful famine, in 1420 and 1422, reduced the population, on which the Tartars had already inflicted much suffering. The town submitted to the Polish Pretender in 1608, and was occupied by Lissofski. The incident on which the opera of 'Life for the Tsar' is founded took place near Kostroma, where the estates of the Romanoff family were situated. A monument stands here, erected during the reign of Nicholas, to the memory of Ivan Susanin, the peasant who saved the Tsar. Great privileges and immunities were bestowed on his descendants, but they have recently been forfeited.

The *Cathedral of the Assumption* was constructed in 1239, and has undergone but little alteration since. Its antiquity is corroborated by the fact of the altars within it being directed towards the N., not the E., as in all other churches in Russia; the former being the direction in which a miraculous image of the Virgin, to which the ch. is dedicated, appeared to Prince Basil when out hunting. It is a most remarkable monument of ancient ecclesiastical architecture. The celebrated monastery of Ipatief lies outside the town, on the banks of the Kostroma. It was founded by the ancestors of the Tsar Boris Godunoff in the 14th centy. It was surrounded by a wall in 1586. The young Tsar Michael took refuge and accepted the crown in it A.D. 1613. It contains many holy images and relics of antiquity. The rooms in which Michael Romanoff lived are here shown. The furniture and stoves are of the period. A pillar of stone in the centre of the court records the several historical events with which this monastery has been connected.

There are several manufactories at Kostroma, and an extensive steam factory belonging to Messrs. Shipoff. The Volga has a breadth here of 250 fathoms. The high road to Siberia passes through the town.

3. KOSTROMA TO NIJNI NOVGOROD.—A short distance from Kostroma is a Tartar village, founded in the early part of the 16th centy. by Nogai Tartars, who still retain their nationality strongly. The women make very pretty lace. The steamer stops at

Ples, a small town founded in 1409. There is a very large linen manufactory here, and a considerable trade in grain and hardware (in the shape of axes).

Kineshma, 405 m. from Tver, is a district town in the province of Kostroma, with a Pop. of 2500. Great quantities of linen are manufactured by the peasants of this district. One of the best linen manufactories in Russia, with 20 Jacquard looms, stands a few miles beyond the town.

Yurief-Povoljski, 440 m. from Tver. The Unja river falls into the Volga opposite the town. Hence to Nijni-Novgorod the population along the banks of the Volga are engaged in shipbuilding, and partly in spinning flax. The next stations before Nijni are *Katunki*, a famous place for leather and the skins of cats, of which 40,000 to 50,000 are annually dressed; *Gorodets*, where Alexander Nevski died, 1263; and *Balakhna*, frequently inundated in spring, where a fleet intended for the sea of Azof was built in 1695.

For NIJNI-NOVGOROD, *see* description in Rte. 8.

4. NIJNI-NOVGOROD TO KAZAN.—At Nijni the traveller will embark in a larger boat. The best steamers belong to the "Volga" Company, but those of the "Samolët" Company are very good.

The banks of the river become more picturesque at Nijni, where the Volga has a breadth of two-thirds of a mile.

Makarief, 72 m. from Nijni. The fair was formerly held here.

Vasil, 108 m., founded 1523.

Kozmodemiansk, 140 m. from Kazan, Pop. 5000.

Cheboksary, one of the prettiest situated towns on the Volga, with an ancient monastery and leaning tower.

Sviajsk, 25 m.—Most of these small towns were founded by John the Terrible during his expedition to Kazan.

KAZAN, 794 m. from Tver, Pop. 60,000. Founded in 13th or 14th centy. The Tartar kingdom of Kazan was established 1438, after the town had been partially deserted by its original Mongol inhabitants. The Tartars were in constant conflict with the Russians at Nijni-Novgorod, who, with the assistance of the Grand Duke of Moscow, frequently marched upon Kazan, but without any signal success, until John the Terrible took it, in 1552, with an army of 150,000 men. The Tartar Tsar Edigei was made prisoner, and all his troops were slain. Kazan was reduced to ashes by Pugachef in 1774. In 1815 and 1842 it was almost entirely burnt down. The town stands about 5 m. from the banks of the river.

Hotels: "Odessa" and Resanof's. Best dinners at Commonen's restaurant in Voskresensk-street.

Sights.—1. The Kremlin, attributed to 15th centy. 2. Within its walls is a cathedral, built 1562. 3. Sumbeki, a pyramidal tower, 244 ft. in height, probably built in reign of Empress Anne. John the Terrible caused every building within the Kremlin to be destroyed, and even the tombs of the Tartar sovereigns to be levelled with the ground. It is therefore doubtful that this tower is a remnant of Mongol architecture. 4. The Bogoroditsky Convent, near the Kremlin, was built 1579, to receive the miraculous image of "Our Lady of Kazan," discovered unscathed in the ashes of a conflagration. The church, which now contains this venerated image, was completed about 1816. The diamond crown on the head of the Virgin was presented by Cath. II. 5. At a mile from the town is a monument over the remains of those who fell at the siege of Kazan, erected 1823. 6. The Admiralty was founded, in 1718, by Peter the Great, who built a flotilla there for the Volga and Caspian. The barge in which Catherine made her celebrated progress down the Volga is shown here. 7. The UNIVERSITY, founded 1804, consists of four faculties—history, physics, jurisprudence, and medicine; frequented by about 450 students. Principal library, 60,000 vols. State contribution, 1865, 33,000*l*. An English professor is attached to it.

There are 126 factories of different kinds at Kazan. Soap and stearine works are the most important. Next to them are the tanneries, for which the town is widely celebrated.

The steamer stays here long enough for travellers to inspect the town, which is full of life and animation. The Tartar population (7000), with their quaint costumes, impart an Eastern appearance. Education is very much developed among them, a school being attached to every mosque. Travellers visiting Nijni should not fail to run down to Kazan, even if they are unable to proceed to Astrakhan. The various races inhabiting the banks of the Volga afford a most interesting study. The most curious of these are the Mordva, the Chuvashi, and the Cheremissi, of Finnish and Mongolian origin. The trip only occupies 24 hours there and 29 hours back.

5. KAZAN TO SIMBIRSK AND SARATOFF.—At about 53 m. below Kazan, the *Kama* river, 1100 m. in length, falls into the Volga, which is here 4000 fathoms broad. The Kama is the great artery of communication with Siberia. It is navigated by about 1700 vessels, besides rafts, which give occupation to 32,000 men. The goods brought by it to Nijni are valued at 2½ millions sterling, principally salt from Perm, iron, and other metals. (*Vide* Rte. 25.)

Simbirsk, 937 m. from Tver, Pop. 22,000, founded by the Boyar Hitrovo, 1648. It was besieged by Stenka Razin in 1670, and burnt. Pugachef was sent here in an iron cage by Suwaroff, after the defeat of the rebel

by Colonel Michelson. The whole of the country at this part of the Volga had joined the rebellion, and Catherine II. had great fears for the safety of her capital. In 1864 the whole of the town, with the exception of a very few houses, was burnt down, it is supposed by an incendiary. There is a great trade in grain there.

Stavropol, founded in 1737, for the baptism of a Calmuck horde. Here the Volga makes a sudden bend to the E., and, after flowing in that direction for 40 m., turns to the S., and then again abruptly to the W., forming an arch or bow 100 m. in length. Nearly the whole of the country enclosed within this bend was granted in freehold and perpetuity to the Orloff family, and is now in the possession of Count Orloff Davydoff.

Samara, 1087 m. from Tver. Seat of great trade in grain and tallow. There is a celebrated establishment near the town where many cures are effected by means of *Kumyss* or fermented mare's milk. The mineral waters, 80 m. S.E. of Samara, are in great repute. Best hotel is Ushakoff's.

Saratoff, Pop. 70,000. Large trade in raw produce. The Volga is about 3 m. wide, opposite the town. In spring it attains a width of about 15 m. Erfurt's Hotel.

6. Saratoff to Astrakhan.—*Kamyshin*, 100 m. from Saratoff, was fortified, in 1668, by Colonel Thomas Baillie, an Englishman in the Russian service. The fortifications were very useful in the suppression of Cossack piracy on the Volga. Its inhabitants, in 1700, instigated by the Don Cossacks, rose in rebellion against the reforms of Peter, and murdered all those who shaved in compliance with the Tsar's orders. In the vicinity are traces of a canal, which was commenced by Devlet Girey, in 1550, in order to unite the Volga with the Don. Peter the Great began another canal lower down, which was likewise abandoned. The Volga and the Don are still the only great rivers in Russia of which the waters are not connected.

Tsaritsyn, 1657 m. from Tver, and 244 from Saratoff. It was treacherously surrendered to Stenka Razin in 1670, and again plundered by the rebel Bulavin in 1707. Peter the Great visited the town in 1722, and confirmed its privileges; on which occasion he presented the inhabitants with his stick, saying, "Here is my stick; as I managed my friends with it, so you defend yourselves with it against your enemies." Then taking off his cap, and likewise giving it, he said, "As no one dares to take this cap off the head of Majesty, so shall no one dare to turn you out of Tsaritsyn." Both relics are preserved in the town-hall.

There is a railway between this and Kalatch on the Don (*vide* Rte. 18). The mosquitoes are very troublesome here, worse than at any point on the river.

Astrakhan, Pop. 49,000, 1962 m. from Tver.

Hotel: The only hotel is the "Rossia."

This was the seat of a Tartar kingdom until 1557, when it was taken by the troops of John the Terrible, who assumed the title of Tsar of Astrakhan. Selim, the Sultan of Turkey, marched against it in 1569, but was forced to retire. The inhabitants broke out into rebellion in 1605, in favour of the first Pretender. They bound the archbishop hand and foot, and carried him ignominiously to Moscow. Marina, the wife of the false Dimitry, seized the town in 1608, at the head of a large force of rebel Cossacks. In 1660 the Tartars surrounded Astrakhan, but were soon driven away, with a loss of 10,000 men. The Tsar Alexis directed his attention towards the commercial importance of the town, and entered into correspondence with the Shah of Persia, with a view to the establishment of a trade in silk and other produce. In that reign the Duke of Holstein obtained permission, through his embassy (of which the well-known Olearius was secretary), to trade with the countries beyond the Caspian, and to build ships on it. The rebellion of Stenka Razin, in 1665, checked the

new trade. By the treachery of its defenders, Astrakhan was seized by him in 1670. Its voevod and archbishop were thrown down a precipice; the latter after having been divested of his pontifical robes, and half-roasted. The town was retaken in 1671, and Stenka was executed and quartered at Moscow. Another rebellion broke out in 1705, but was speedily suppressed. In 1722 Peter the Great came to Astrakhan with a large force, when he took Gilian, Derbent, Bakù, and other places on the Caspian. Companies were soon after formed to trade with Khiva, Bukhara, Persia, and India. In 1734 an English company obtained the privilege of trading on the Caspian, but it suffered a loss of 80,000*l.* on the death of Nadir Shah of Persia, and renounced the undertaking. After varying success, the Caspian trade is now in a flourishing condition, and employs about 1300 vessels. The imports in 1860 amounted to about 500,000*l.*, and the exports to 800,000*l.* Fishing is very largely pursued on the Caspian. A small flotilla is stationed on it. The sights are: 1. The Kremlin, built about 1582. 2. The Cath. of the Assumption, constructed 1698, containing many ecclesiastical relics. 3. Museum. 4. Gallery of portraits of archbishops of Astrakhan. 5. Admiralty, built 1722, and two boats used by Peter the Great. 6. Library.

From Astrakhan the enterprising traveller may take steamer to Bakù, and return by way of Persia and the Caucasus (*vide* Rte. 20). A trip to Astrabad should in any case be made.

The voyage from Tver to Nijni by steamer generally occupies 2½ to 3 days, and that from Nijni-Novgorod to Astrakhan 6 days. The steamers do not go on during the night, and stop frequently to take in wood. There is every comfort on board, and excellent provisions. Some of the skippers speak English, and nearly all some other European language besides their own. The fare from Tver to Nijni, exclusive of living, is about 3*l.*; and from Nijni to Astrakhan about 5*l.*

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SECTION II.—SOUTH RUSSIA AND CRIMEA, CAUCASUS AND SIBERIA.

INTRODUCTION.

ROUTES TO ODESSA AND SOUTH OF RUSSIA.

THE traveller will see by the map that there are several routes to Odessa, viz:—

By Water.—1. From London to Odessa. English steamers from the London Docks (apply to Messrs. Smith, Sundius, and Co., City), and the packets of the Russian Steam Navigation Company, maintain a constant communication with Odessa by way of the Mediterranean.

2. From Constantinople to Odessa, by Russian Steam Navigation Company's packets, leaving every week. Fares, 28 rs. and 18 rs. Passage 30 to 40 hrs.

3. From Vienna down the Danube to Galatz in Austrian boats. Travellers may proceed all the distance to Galatz by boat, or go by rail from Vienna to Bazias, and take the steamer which left Vienna the previous day. The same ticket and fare for both routes. The boats of the Austrian and Russian Companies correspond, so that travellers are not delayed at Galatz. As a rule, the boats of the Russian Steam Navigation Company are in every way to be recommended.

By Land.—1. Berlin or Vienna to Odessa, by Lemberg, Czernowitz, and Kishenef. Rte. 10.

2. Berlin or Vienna to Odessa, by Lemberg, Brody, Volochisk (on Russian frontier), Bar, and Balta (railway in construction). Rte. 11.

3. Riga or St. Petersburg to Odessa, by Dünaburg, Witebsk, Orel, and Kief. Rte. 12.

4. Moscow to Odessa, by Tula, Orel, Kursk, Kharkoff, Poltava, Kremenchuk, Elizavetgrad, and Balta. Rte. 13.

The following is a description of the several routes by land. Before proceeding by any of them travellers should inquire how far the railways in construction have been pushed on and opened.

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ROUTES.

[The names of places are printed in *italics* only in those routes where the places are *described*.]

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ROUTE 10.

BERLIN OR VIENNA TO ODESSA, BY LEMBERG, CZERNOWITZ, AND KISHENEF.

From Vienna by rail to Lemberg and Czernowitz in Austrian Galicia. (Vide *Handbook for South Germany*.) Omnibus from Czernowitz to Novoselitsa; thence by post either to Kishenef or Tiraspol, according to condition of the railway, which will be completed between Odessa and Kishenef in 1870.

NOVOSELITSA, Russian village in prov. of Bessarabia, on frontier of Austria, and also on frontier of Moldavia, on river Pruth. Pop. 2000. *Hotel* not as good as the one at Czernowitz, where travellers will prefer to stop.

This village is supposed to have been founded in the 16th centy. by the Cossacks, who came under their Hetman Svirgofski to assist the Wallachians against the Turks. There is a considerable trade at Novoselitsa, particularly in timber, which, after being floated down the Pruth, is carried overland to the Dniester. In 1861 goods of the value of 1¼ million of roubles were imported through its Custom-house.

Travellers must here obtain an order for post-horses, and either purchase or hire a tarantass, the vehicle best suited to the country. The charge for posting is 2½ cop. per verst for each horse. The distance from Novoselitsa to Kishenef is 276 v., from the latter town to Tiraspol 66 v., and thence to Odessa by railway, now open, the distance is 110 v.

The towns through which the traveller will pass on this route are:—

BIELTSI, 120 v. from Kishenef. Pop. 7000, on river Réut. There is a great

trade here in cattle, of which 150,000 head are annually sold for Poland, Austria, Moldavia, Wallachia, and Prussia. It comes from the provinces of Kherson, Taurida, Podolia, Volhynia, and Kief. There is also a considerable business in grain.

Orgeief, 41 v. from Kishenef. Pop. 5700. On left bank of river Réut. Until 1812 it belonged to the Turks, and was the residence of the Sirdars who governed the northern part of the present province of Bessarabia. The trade of the town is small, but a considerable amount of smuggling is carried on *viâ* Kishenef.

Kishenef, 66 v. from Tiraspol. Pop. 94,000. Chief town of Bessarabia, on river Byka.

A small town existed on the site of Kishenef so far back as the 9th centy. It is mentioned in a charter dated 1420, but in the 17th centy. it was destroyed by the Tartars. In 1812 it passed from Moldavia to Russia. At that time it belonged to the monastery of the Holy Sepulchre. A Russian metropolitan resides there since 1813. It is the centre of a very considerable trade in tallow, wool, wheat, hides, &c., carried hence to Odessa or to Austria *viâ* Novoselitsa. The principal market-days are Mondays and Fridays. In spring large quantities of cattle are sold in the market, seldom less than 3000 head, at about 20 roubles apiece. The inhabitants are much engaged in cultivating fruit, vegetables, and the tobacco-plant. Large quantities of prunes, grown principally by Bulgarians, are produced at Kishenef. If the railway is not open so far, the traveller will have to post through

Bendery (Pop. 22,000), a fortress town, 58½ v. from Kishenef, on the right bank of the Dniester. The Genoese had a settlement here in the 12th centy.; by the Moldavians it was called Tigin, and its present name was given by the Turks in the latter part of the 14th centy.

In 1709, after the battle of Poltava, Charles XII. established his camp here, and, calling it New Stockholm, defended himself against the Turks until 1711.

The town has been taken by the Russians 3 times, viz. in 1770, 1789, and in 1806. It was only annexed to Russia by the Treaty of Bucharest, 1812. The fortress is separated from the town by a square, on which is a mound called after Suworof. Tradition says that Charles XII. and Mazeppa reconnoitred the country beyond the Dnieper from its summit. Near the E. angle of the fortress is an ancient castle, on the Dniester. There is a considerable trade in wheat, wine, wool, cattle, tallow, and particularly in timber, floated down the Dniester. Large quantities of goods are unloaded here from boats, and carried overland to Odessa and Jassy.

Tiraspol, 110 v. from Odessa in prov. of Kherson. Pop. 10,000. On left bank of Dniester. The fortress of Tiraspol is now dismantled. Trade inconsiderable. Gardening is the principal occupation of the inhabitants. Hence the railway is open to

Odessa.—*Vide* Rte. 12.

ROUTE 11.

BERLIN OR VIENNA TO ODESSA, BY LEMBERG, BRODY, VOLOCHISK, BAR, AND BALTA.

The railway from Volochisk to Balta will be ready in 1870. Until it is completed we need only give the following short sketch of the route.

Volochisk, townlet in prov. of Volhynia, on river Sbrutcha. Pop. 2500. Small trade with Austria.

Bar, a small town in prov. of Podolia, on the banks of the Rov, an affluent of the Bug. Pop. 8000. In 1452 this town, then called Rov, was destroyed by the Tartars. Soon after, Queen Bona Sforza, consort of Sigismund I. of Poland, rebuilt the town, built a castle, and gave both the town and the castle the present name of Bar, after Bari in Italy. In the 17th centy.

the castle was restored by the Hetman Stanislaus Koneçpolski. In 1648, and again in 1651, it was taken by the Cossacks, but in 1672 it fell to the Turks, and was only restored to the Poles in 1699. The Polish Confederation of Bar is frequently mentioned in history as having been formed in 1768, three years after which Bar was taken by the Russians, but, having been again restored to Poland, it formed part of the Voévodship of Podolia until the partition of Poland in 1793, when it was transferred to Russia. The Jesuits established a college there in 1693, and the building is now devoted to the purposes of a school. There are 3 chs. and a monastery of the Russo-Greek faith, and 1 Roman Catholic ch. Eleven fairs are held during the year, but the transactions are not considerable. (For journey from Bar to Odessa *via* Balta *vide* next route.)

ROUTE 12.

RIGA OR ST. PETERSBURG TO ODESSA, BY DÜNABURG, WITEBSK, OREL, AND KIEF.

For journey from Riga to Dünaburg *vide* Rte. 4.

For journey from St. Petersburg to Dünaburg *vide* Rte. 1.

From Dünaburg the journey will be continued as follows:—

DRISSA, 174 v. from Witebsk, at the confluence of the Drissa with the W. Dvina. Pop. 2000. A fortification existed at Drissa in the 14th centy., when it was destroyed by the Prince of Polotsk. In 1565 Drissa was occupied by the Russians, but Stephen Batory restored it to Poland, to which it belonged until the annexation of White Russia (or the present provinces of Witebsk and Mohilef), to Russia Proper. During the war of 1812, the Russian General Barclay de Tolly retreated before the French to Drissa, and established an entrenched camp there, which he abandoned, however, on the 18th (30th) July.

There is a large trade here with Riga in flax and other produce.

POLOTSK, 5th stat., 150 v. from Dünaburg. Pop. 12,000. On river Western Dvina.

History.—The history of Polotsk is that of the whole of the country lying along the course of the Dvina, viz. of a considerable part of White Russia. Its foundation is attributed, on the faith of Iceland *Sagas*, to the 1st centy. after Christ. According to the Chronicle of Nestor, Polotsk, with some slight variations in the name, existed prior to the arrival of the Norman princes, Rurik, Sineus, and Truvor. The authentic and eventful history of the town begins in 864, when Polotsk was one of the principal colonies in the country of the Krevitchi. At his death Truvor gave Polotsk to one of his followers, and, in 980, chronicles speak of it as belonging to an independent Prince, Rogvolod, a Northman. The proud refusal of his daughter Rogneda to marry Vladimir Prince of Novgorod caused the downfall of Polotsk, for Wladimir came there with a large army, and, putting Rogvolod and his sons to death, carried Rogneda away as his wife.

Annexed to the principality of Kief, when Wladimir, afterwards canonized, succeeded to that throne, it became the portion of Isiaslaf, son of St. Wladimir by Rogneda. Its existence as an independent principality was frequently menaced by the other descendants of Wladimir between 980 and 1129, when the Prince of Kief succeeded in taking possession of it. But the town and province of Polotsk continued to have many enemies—the Pskovites, the Livonian knights, and the Lithuanians, who wrested the principality from each other by turns. A treaty between the Prince of Smolensk and Riga in 1228 gave it to the former, and in 1235 it was conquered by Rinholdt, a Lithuanian prince. During the internecine war that followed on the death of Mindovgus, Grand Duke

of Lithuania, Polotsk was sold to the Church of Riga, but it was purchased again by the Lithuanians in 1307. Its privileges were then gradually assimilated to those of other provincial towns in Lithuania, and in 1498 the law of Magdeburg superseded the Lithuanian and Russian laws under which Polotsk had been previously governed. The law of Magdeburg and other privileges of Polotsk were confirmed by successive grand dukes of Lithuania and kings of Poland between 1510 and 1634. The development of the new institutions was, however, frequently retarded by danger from without. In 1500 and 1502 the Russians advanced as far as Polotsk, laying waste the country around them. Alexander, Grand Duke of Lithuania, hastened to put the castle in a state of defence, but a truce saved the town. In 1507 the Russians once more entered the province of Polotsk, and again withdrew with a promise to leave it unmolested in future. In 1511 they returned and spread destruction around them, and in 1515 and 1518 they laid siege to the town, but without success, for the fortifications had been well repaired. John the Terrible, however, having come to an open rupture with Lithuania, advanced in person with his army, A.D. 1563, and took the town after a siege of two weeks, during which many assaults were made. The fall of Polotsk was celebrated all over Moscovy with the ringing of bells, and for 17 years it was governed by Russian Voevods; but in 1579 King Stephen Batory retook it, because "the Voévods were bad, and admired the fair sex." There was great mourning at Moscow in consequence, and John the Terrible, in an impulse of rage, caused all the troops that had returned from Polotsk, or that had been made prisoners and released, to be put to death.

Batory had the walls and towers repaired, confirmed the ancient privileges of the inhabitants, the Grand Duke of Muscovy all the while attempting to regain the town by peaceful negotiations, for which purpose he even invoked the aid of England.

The death of John the Terrible and the troubles that followed enabled the Poles to retain peaceful possession of the unhappy town, which was about this time visited with pestilence and famine, and nearly burned to the ground. After many internal dissensions of a religious character the town fell again, in 1654, to the Russians, who held it until 1667, when they restored it to Poland under the Treaty of Andrussy; and it was not until the first partition of Poland, in 1772, that Polotsk and the rest of White Russia were finally incorporated with Russia Proper.

In 1812 Murat and Ney established themselves in the neighbourhood of Polotsk, and, when they marched on Witebsk, Oudinot was left in their place.

WITEBSK, 4th Stat., 93 v. from Polotsk, and 243 v. from Dünaburg. Pop. 28,000.

Hotel: "Brosi," with a restaurant below, rooms tolerable.

History. — Situated on both banks of the Western Dvina, and on the Vitba rivulet falling into it, Witebsk appears to have been founded before the year 1021. In 1101 it was the seat of an independent principality, which existed until the year 1320, when it was annexed to Lithuania, on the death of Prince Yaroslaf, who had given his daughter in marriage to Olgerd Prince of Lithuania. Casimir King of Poland gave the town many privileges in the latter part of the 15th centy. In 1562 Prince Kurbski, a Russian Voévod, who later incurred the wrath of John the Terrible and fled to Lithuania, burnt the suburbs of Witebsk, and, in 1563 and 1569, the Russians took the town and set it on fire.

The Poles having subsequently regained it, Sigismund III. compensated the inhabitants for their losses by establishing a fair, and giving to the town his castle of Lukishki, of which no traces remain. In 1616 Witebsk was again burnt down by the Russians and Cossacks. Seven years later the inhabitants rose and put to death Bishop Kunçewicz, who attempted to introduce

the Uniate faith, for which offence the ancient privileges of Witebsk were withdrawn for a time, but restored in 1641 by Wladislaus IV. The Russians, under Sheremetieff, again took Witebsk in 1654, after a siege of 3½ months' duration, and held it until 1667, when, together with Polotsk, it was restored to Lithuania under the Treaty of Andrussy. During the wars between Peter I. and Charles XII., Witebsk, which had sided with the Swedes, and had even sent them a subsidy of 7000 thalers, was burnt to the ground by Cossacks and Calmucks, by the order of Peter. It was finally incorporated with Russia in 1772.

In 1812, Witebsk, deserted by its inhabitants, was occupied by the French army. No one was to be seen in it but a few Jews and Jesuits. They could give no information. The French followed in pursuit for 6 leagues, through a deep and burning sand. At last night put an end to their progress. The soldiers, parching with thirst, could get only muddy water to quench it; and while they were busy in procuring it, Napoleon held a council, the result of which was that it was useless to pursue the Russians any further at present, and that it was advisable to halt where they were on the confines of Old Russia. As soon as the emperor had formed this resolution he returned to Witebsk with his guards. On entering his headquarters in that city on the 28th July, he took off his sword, and, laying it down on the maps which covered his table, "Here," said he, "I halt. I want to reconnoitre, to rally, to rest my army, and to organize Poland. The campaign of 1812 is over; that of 1813 will do the rest." Napoleon left Witebsk on the 13th August, after halting there a fortnight, and on the 15th the army was in sight of Krasnoi, where it defeated the corps of Neverovski.

Having gone through so many calamities, it is not surprising that Witebsk should have no monuments of antiquity to show the traveller. Its principal buildings are—the Palace where the Grand Duke Constantine of Russia, brother of the Emperor Nicholas, died in 1831; the Nobility Assembly House, the Gymnasium, and the Cathedrals of St. Nicholas and of the Assumption. It has also a theatre, and an hospital with 160 beds. There is a considerable trade with Riga in corn, flax, hemp, tobacco, sugar, and timber. The country beyond Witebsk is very pretty.

Until the rly. in course of construction is open for traffic, travellers will have to post hence to Oerl.

SMOLENSK, 120 v. from Witebsk. On riv. Dniepr. Pop. 23,000.

Hotel: Ratchinsky.

History.—Nestor calls Smolensk the town of the Krivitchi, and alludes to its existence prior to the Norman conquest of Russia. The Variague Prince Oleg took possession of it in 882, and until the year 1054 it remained annexed to the principality of Kief, when it fell to the share of Viacheslaf, son of Yaroslaf I. The "province" of Smolensk at that time comprised the whole of the present province of Smolensk and part of the present provinces of Witebsk, Pskof, Moscow, and Kaluga. After passing under the government of various princes it became the appanage of Vladimir Monomachus, who constructed in the town of Smolensk the Cathedral of the Assumption, which, although destroyed by the Poles in the 17th centy., has since been restored in its original form, and still contains the image of the Holy Virgin, given to Vladimir Monomachus by his mother, daughter of the Emperor of Byzantium. When Vladimir succeeded in his turn to the throne of Kief, Smolensk was governed by his 2 sons. Rostislaf, son of the next Prince of Kief, held Smolensk for 34 years as a vassal, and was drawn into all the wars which the Princes of Kief, Chernigof, and Novgorod waged against each other.

Mention is made in old chronicles of the magnificent reception given to Rostislaf when as Prince of Kief he passed through Smolensk on his way to Novgorod. His son Robert succeeded him at Smolensk, and spent so much money in building churches and establishing ecclesi-

astical schools that the expenses of his funeral had to be paid by the inhabitants. Many Veché or Wittenagemotes were held about this time at Smolensk, as in other towns of Russia. The whole of the 12th centy. passed in constant wars between the various princes. In the next centy. Smolensk was menaced by a new foe—the Lithuanians, who, in 1285, advanced up to Smolensk, and committed great ravages, but without taking the town, which had by this time grown very wealthy from its trade with the Baltic provinces and the Hanseatic League. The Germans even made a commercial treaty with Smolensk as early as 1229. A mutual right of trade and a free passage from Smolensk to Gothland in the Baltic was thereby secured, subject to the payment of certain dues. This convention was confirmed in 1284 and 1330. The size of the town may be estimated from the fact that in 1231 it lost no fewer than 32,000 inhab. from the plague.

In 1237 the Tartars advanced on Smolensk, but it was saved, according to a legend, by a Roman named Mercurius, who went into the camp of the invaders and killed the giant on whom they most relied for success in their enterprise. Having been killed by the Tartars while asleep from fatigue, Mercurius was recognised by the Church as a martyr, and to this day the helmet and greaves which the hero wore during the fight are sacredly preserved in the cathedral. The Lithuanians now made several attempts to possess themselves of Smolensk, which compelled the inhabitants in 1275 to seek the assistance of the Tartars, who again in 1340 marched upon the city in conjunction with the forces of the Princes of Moscow and Riazan, but the expedition failed, owing, it is supposed, to the Tartar chief having been bribed by the besieged. Continual wars with Moscovy and Lithuania, and another dreadful plague, soon after weakened the principality, and it was at last taken by the Lithuanians in 1395. In 1401, however, Oleg, Prince of Riazan, agreed to assist his father-in-law, George, in the recovery of the throne of Smolensk, and, having appeared before the town with a large force, the inhabitants opened their gates. Prince George immediately put to death all the Boyars who had espoused the cause of the Lithuanians. Vitovt, Prince of Lithuania, attacked Prince George in 1403, and after taking Viasma, in order to cut off his communications with Moscow, he laid siege to Smolensk during a period of seven weeks, but without success. Next year he came again, while George was at Moscow soliciting the aid of its prince, and reduced the town by famine on the 26th June, 1404. Vitovt gave the conquered town many privileges, but its ruin was so complete that a most dreadful famine ensued, during which the inhabitants were reduced to the condition of cannibals, and "dogs were seen in the streets feeding off human bones."

King Casimir of Poland visited Smolensk about 1453, and confirmed all its former privileges. A truce with Moscow in 1493, and the marriage of Alexander, Grand Duke or Prince of Lithuania, with Helen daughter of John III. of Moscow, did not long preserve Smolensk from further disasters. Although the free exercise of the Greek religion had been guaranteed to Helen, yet Joseph, Bishop of Smolensk, soon began openly to preach the supremacy of the Pope and to interfere with the religious observances of the Grand Duchess. A dispute about boundaries gave the Moscovites a pretext for attack, and the Lithuanians were routed on the 14th July 1500 at Dorogobush (86 v. from Smolensk), but Prince Alexander had put the town into such an excellent state of defence that the Moscovites were forced to withdraw, after suffering much from the want of provisions. A regular peace was not concluded until 1503. This had scarcely expired before war broke out afresh between the Lithuanians and Moscovites, at the instigation of Glinsky, a Lithuanian noble who went over to the Russians. After many encounters and another truce, John the Terrible resolved in council to fight the Lithuanians "as long as

his horse would carry him or his sword cut," and in 1513 he advanced on Smolensk with a contingent from Pskof, which was so unaccustomed to fight that just before the assault their courage had to be sustained by the distribution of 3 casks of mead and 3 of beer.

A first and a second campaign proved unsuccessful, but a third siege, undertaken in June 1514, with superior forces, provided with cannon, and with the assistance of mercenaries from Bohemia and Germany, compelled the citizens to surrender.

The loss of Smolensk was keenly felt by the Poles and Lithuanians, and during the whole of the 16th centy. they endeavoured to regain possession of it. Even the Khan of Tartary was called in by King Sigismund to induce the Russians to abandon it, but in vain. Stephen Batory tried to take it by force of arms, but failed, for the castle and fortifications had been carefully rebuilt. In 1596 these were again strengthened under the superintendence of Boris Godunof, afterwards usurper of the throne of Moscow. He built a new wall of stone with 36 towers and 9 gates. The ancient trade of the town was renewed, but famine and epidemics continued to succeed each other.

The 17th centy. was ushered in by further troubles. On the death of Boris Godunof, Smolensk surrendered to the false Demetrius, who gave it with the whole of the province to George (Yury) Mnishek, Voévod of Sandomir, his future father-in-law.

On the 21st April, 1606, the citizens went out with church banners, and with bread, salt, and sable skins, to meet their "Tsaritsa" Marina, daughter of Mnishek. But their loyalty was not of long duration. The downfall of the Pretender was the signal for their marching against the Poles, then in Moscow. Between 1608 and 1611 Smolensk held out against overwhelming Polish forces, and at last had to sustain a siege of more than 20 months' duration; nor would the old town have yielded, had not the weakness of one of its walls been betrayed to the Poles by a citizen. On the 3rd July, 1611, that part of the wall was battered down, and the Poles broke into the town, killing an immense number of the inhabitants. As many as 72,000 persons perished on the Polish and Russian sides during that memorable siege. The Boyar Shein, who had so manfully conducted the defence of the city, was put in irons, tortured, and then sent to Lithuania with other important prisoners. The Poles now hastened to establish themselves and their religion firmly in the conquered province. They founded monasteries and Roman Catholic churches, and gave the Jesuits and Bernardines full liberty of action. Important charters were at the same time granted to the citizens. The new Tsar, Michael, was forced by circumstances to acknowledge the annexation of Smolensk and other towns, except Viazma, to Poland by treaty, in 1618, on condition, however, of his father, the Metropolitan Philaret, being set at liberty. In 1632 that sovereign declared war against the Poles with the object of regaining Smolensk. The command of 32,000 troops and 158 cannon was given to the same Boyar Shein who had defended the city in 1611. At first the Russian forces were successful, and many towns surrendered; but in 1633 King Wladislaus came in person to the relief of the besieged citizens, and compelled the Russians on the 19th February, 1634, to lay down their arms under an armistice. The Boyar Shein surrendered all his war material, standards, and provisions, and took oath with his troops not to carry arms against Poland during 4 months. It was a great humiliation to the veteran Boyar to see his troops march out of their camp without beat of drum, and bow low to the hosts of Poland while they deposited their colours at the feet of the King. As an act of grace Wladislaus permitted Shein to take 12 guns with him, but on returning to Moscow the unfortunate man was beheaded, together with his adjunct, the Voévod Izmailof.

Twenty years later the war was renewed under the Tsar Alexis, who

in 1654 arrived in person with a large army before the walls of Smolensk. The first assault, made after a siege of 6 weeks, was repulsed, but after a second attack the Polish commander, whose authority had been weakened by a tumult among the citizens, was forced to surrender. On the 23rd September, 1654, the Polish troops, this time, had to march out of the fortress ignominiously, and lay down their arms at the feet of the Tsar. Hostilities continued for 12 years longer, and during that time Smolensk remained in the hands of the Russians, who re-established the Russo-Greek churches, and did their best to Russify the province. Great numbers of the Polish population were deported to the Volga and the Kama, and replaced by "sons of boyars" brought forcibly from beyond Moscow. The Treaty of Andrussy (1667) secured Smolensk to the Russians for 13 years and 6 months, but the Poles took advantage of the impending war between Russia and Turkey in 1678 and demanded the restoration of the city. This, however, the Russians refused to do, and preferred paying an indemnity of 200,000 r. and surrendering several other towns. At last, by the Treaty of 26th April, 1686, Smolensk was annexed to Russia "for ever."

The latter part of the 17th centy. was passed by the citizens in peace, and their ancient trade with Russia and other countries was renewed. When the great northern war broke out at the beginning of the 18th centy., Peter the Great frequently visited Smolensk, and devoted much labour to securing it from danger. The great war did not reach it, but it was made the basis of the operations in Lithuania and Little Russia, and the Poles naturally regretted all the more the loss of the city they had so long held. Jesuit fathers penetrated into it and gained over many of the citizens; and although their admission was prohibited by ukaz in 1728, when those who had already become domiciled in Russia were expelled, they continued, according to Russian accounts, to enter the province of Smolensk in disguise, and to propagate Catholicism and allegiance to Poland. In 1734 a regular plot was discovered, in which even the Governor of Smolensk, Prince Cherkasky, was implicated. Their designs were divulged by one of the conspirators, and the measures which the Russian Government adopted dispelled the hopes of the Poles, and left the city of Smolensk in peace until the French invasion.

The traveller is referred to the *Historical Notice* for an account of Bonaparte's campaign in Russia, and we need only add the following particulars, as regards the city of Smolensk, taken from a Russian source:—

"When the 'grand army' began its march from the Niemen in 1812, the Russian troops fell back on Smolensk. Although Barclay de Tolly encouraged the inhabitants and assured them of their safety, he nevertheless caused the treasury to be removed, and all documents from which the enemy might derive any information about the condition of the country. The two Russian armies (one commanded by Barclay de Tolly, the other by Bagration) reached Smolensk on the 22nd July (O.S.), and encamped on the l. bank of the Dnieper. Three days later they retreated further, leaving only one regiment in the town. In the mean while the French advanced, and, after the engagement with Neverofski at Krasnoi, appeared on the 3rd August in the neighbourhood of Smolensk. Raefski, sent to assist Neverofski, fortified as far as he could the suburbs of the town, and resolved to maintain himself in it until the arrival of the two armies.

"On the morning of the 4th (16th) August the fighting commenced, and was continued the next day with great carnage, as the armies had advanced the day before. Many assaults were repulsed, the old walls withstood a fearful cannonade, and a dreadful fire broke out in the town. . . . During the night our troops evacuated the town, and on the morning of the 6th (18th) Napoleon entered it, but found nothing except smouldering ruins, and no inhabitants except the old, the

young, and the sick, many of whom had taken refuge in the churches. Napoleon remained 4 days at Smolensk, and established a Commission for the civil administration of the town, with Caulaincourt as Military Governor. The Commission could, however, do nothing; a rising took place all over the country; bands of partisans were formed, and destroyed foraging parties, and even larger bodies of the enemy, whenever they met them. The French tried to overawe the people by acts of severity, and, having seized the leaders of two bands of partisans, Engelhard and Shubin, shot them at Smolensk. This only increased the animosity of the people, and when, on the 29th October (O.S.), Napoleon returned to Smolensk, he found nothing for the support of the remnants of the 'great army.'

"The further retreat of Napoleon was protected at Smolensk by Ney, who left the city on the 6th (18th) November, after blowing up 8 of the towers built by Godunof, and a part of the other fortifications. The Russians who had remained in the town issued out of their places of refuge, and began to destroy with frenzy the stragglers who roamed about the town, throwing them into the flames of the burning buildings and into holes in the ice. . . . The 20th regiment of Rifles entered Smolensk, and put an end to these outrages. The removal and destruction of the bodies of men and carcases of horses were continued for 3 months afterwards, for many of the streets were literally encumbered with the dead. At first the bodies were burned, piled in heaps half a verst in length and two fathoms high, and, when the supply of wood failed, they were buried in trenches and covered with quick-lime. Epidemics subsequently broke out in consequence. The losses incurred by Smolensk were at that time valued at 6,592,404 r. 60 c."

The mounds which cover the bodies of the unfortunate Frenchmen will be seen on either side of the old post-road from Moscow. Although the demolition of the historical walls of Smolensk has been commenced by the Town Council, there is reason to hope that this act of vandalism will go no further, and that the traveller, passing through the old city, will still catch a glimpse of its ancient defences.

Roslavl, 118 v. from Smolensk, on river Orcha. Pop. 7000.

Vladimir Monomachus is supposed to have founded this town A.D. 1098, but its history does not properly begin until the middle of the 12th centy. Like other towns in the principality of Smolensk, Roslavl was taken by the Lithuanians. In 1493 it was taken by the Moscovites, but in 1503 John III. gave it back to the Lithuanians. Later, Roslavl passed through several hands. In 1563 it was held by the troops of John the Terrible, who defended it successfully against the Lithuanians, whose leader, Prince John Lytchko, was taken prisoner. At that time the town was strongly fortified, and its walls were defended by many cannon and a large garrison. The citizens of Roslavl espoused the cause of the Pretender, and later, while the Poles were laying siege to Smolensk, they sent a deputation to King Sigismund with an offer of surrender. The temporary Polish governor of Roslavl, Nadolsky, so greatly irritated them that they impaled him. In 1613, and again in 1632, the Moscovites seized the town, but they were obliged each time to restore it by treaty to the Poles. It was finally annexed to Russia by a treaty made in 1686. The old martial spirit of the inhabitants revived during the French invasion, when they equipped a detachment of 400 horse and foot, and greatly harassed the French foraging parties.

Briansk, 145 v. E.N.E. of Orel, on both banks of the Desnia, and on those of 4 other small rivers, which divide the town into 4 parts, has a Pop. of 13,000. This town is mentioned in chronicles of the 12th centy., and formed an independent principality, which fell in 1356, on the death of its prince, Vassili, or William. When the Mongols invaded Russia, Briansk was seized by the Lithuanians, but

from time to time it was annexed to Moscovy, as for instance in 1491. It was finally incorporated with Russia in the beginning of the 17th centy. The adherents of the first Pretender took possession of the town, but the citizens withstood the siege of the second false Demetrius. Under the Empress Anne a shipbuilding yard was established there, after a plan by Peter the Great, for the purpose of building vessels to be employed against Turkey; but the ships having proved useless, their further construction was stopped in 1739. In 1783 an arsenal was founded there for the manufacture of siege and field guns. It still exists, and supplies about 60 guns a year, besides gun-carriages and other artillery appurtenances. There are 13 churches within the town. The Cathedral of the Intercession of the Holy Virgin was built in 1526, and restored in the 17th centy. In the Sacristy will be seen a copy of the Evangelists, with the autograph of the Tsar Michael, 1637. There is also a convent containing 2 churches, in one of which is buried Oleg, Prince of Chernigof and Briansk, who flourished in the 13th centy., and afterwards took the cowl under the name of Leonidas.

A considerable trade is carried on here in timber, hemp, and hemp-seed oil, produced in various parts of the province of Orel, in which the town is situated, and forwarded hence to Moscow, Riga, and St. Petersburg. The inhabitants likewise purchase cattle in the southern provinces, and sell it in the capitals.

Orel, *vide* Rte. 13.

(For route from Orel to Kursk, *vide* Rte. 13.)

From Kursk the line of rail will pass through the following towns:—

Belopolye, on rivers Vyra and Kryga. Pop. 12,000. Founded in 1672. The citizens of this town are noted for their industry and enterprise in trade; wheat, salted fish, salt, pitch, and timber being the produce in which they deal. 10,000 to 12,000 chetverts of wheat are annually sold here. Tallow-melting is pursued to some extent.

Kozelets, on river Ostra. Pop. 5000. This was a fortified town already in the 17th centy., when it suffered much from the fanaticism of the Uniates, and from the quartering of troops. It took an active part in the Cossack rebellion. In the latter part of the 17th centy. it was frequently attacked by the Poles and Cossack Hetmans. There are 5 chs. in the town, of which the Cath. was built by Count Rastrelli in the reign of the Empress Elizabeth. It contains the tomb of the mother of a former Hetman of Little Russia—Count Cyril Razumofski. It is situated in the province of Chernigof, in Little Russia, in the fertile districts of which the traveller will observe some distinctive features in the landscape, such as the primitive windmills, and the use of thatch instead of wood for the roofs of the cottages, many of which have orchards attached to them. The traveller will have observed on leaving Kursk that he was entering the flat country of the "Steppes"—immense districts, where he will rarely descry anything between him and the horizon but a straggling tree or perhaps a tumulus. Before the construction of the railroad there was much danger in traversing these tracts in winter,—as in the dark or in a snow-storm the way was easily lost, and the bewildered wanderer would sometimes be frozen or overwhelmed in drift. A few stations beyond Kozelets is

Kief. *Hotels:* H. d'Angleterre; H. de Russie; H. de l'Europe (very fair); and several others, almost equally good. Rooms from 1 to 5 rs.

(*Obs.* Steamers ply twice a week in summer between Kief and Ekaterinoslaf, from whence travellers may proceed to Kherson, and take boat to Odessa, or proceed by Perekop through the Crimea. The steamers between Nicopol, on the Dnieper, and Kherson, 3 times a-week. Fare 7·50 rs.)

History.—Kief, "the Jerusalem of Russia," with a Pop. of 70,000, is one of the most ancient towns in Europe. Its authentic history begins with the arrival of two Variag or Norman knights, Askold and Dyr, with their comrades, who left Novgorod to take possession of it. With a fleet of 200 vessels the

Norman princes of Kief sailed along the Dnieper and the Euxine, and reached Byzantium, where the knights embraced Christianity. In 882 Oleg came to Kief, with Igor, the youthful son of Rurik, killed treacherously the two knights, and, taking possession of the city, determined that it should be "the mother of Russian towns."

From that period Kief became the capital of the Russian principalities. Olga, Regent at Kief during the minority of the son of Igor, embraced Christianity at Constantinople about A.D. 955. (*Vide* Historical Notice.) Under the Grand Duke Vladimir, who finally introduced the Christian religion into Russia, and during the reigns of several of his successors, Kief acquired much importance, and grew prosperous from its connection with the Byzantine empire. Ancient writers affirm that in the 11th cent. there were no fewer than 400 churches within its walls. In the year 1017 a fire almost entirely consumed it. The death of Yaroslaf (1054) led to intestine commotions and wars, which more than once caused the city to change masters. In 1240 the Tartars took it and sacked it. In 1320 Guédémin, Duke of Lithuania, drove out the Tartars, and annexed the whole of that part of the country to Lithuania. In 1496 and 1500 the Tartars again ravaged the ill-fated city. The subsequent fate of Kief will be best described in a short history of the S.W. provinces, of which it is now the seat of government.

Volhynia, Kief, and Podolia have a Pop. of about 5 millions. Volhynia lies in the basin of the Prypet river, and is very fertile in its southern districts, which were once covered with castles and flourishing cities connected with the history of Poland. Jitomir is the only town that has risen since the annexation of Volhynia to the empire of Russia. Podolia is the country comprised between the Bug and the middle part of the Dniester. From time immemorial this has been a land flowing with milk and honey. The southern portion of the province of Kief is almost equally fertile. Beetroot is very much cultivated there, and many thousands of the population are engaged in extracting sugar from it.

This was anciently called the Ukraine, or border country, and beyond it were the uninhabited Steppes by which the Mongols advanced to overrun Europe. The semi-nomadic population of the Ukraine were early called Cossacks. From the princes of the house of Rurik these provinces passed into the possession of Lithuania and Poland, after having been devastated by the Tartars in 1238. At the union of Lithuania with Poland (1386) the whole of "Southern Ruthenia" was annexed to Poland. Polish nobles obtained large grants of unpopulated lands in Volhynia and Podolia, and built castles, under the shadows of which rose towns and villages. By the union of Lublin (1569) the three provinces of Volhynia, Podolia, and Kief were recognised as constituent portions of Poland. But they were later ceded in part to Russia, which, however, by the treaty of Viazma, in 1634, recognised the right of Poland to Smolensk, Chernigof, and the whole of the Ukraine on both banks of the Dnieper. The Cossacks soon after became very troublesome. They were continually undertaking expeditions against the Turks and the Tartars, and laying Poland open to the imputation of a want of good faith and a disregard of treaties. Recruited from the dregs of Polish society, and scorned by the Polish aristocracy, the Cossacks were very democratic in spirit.

Religious dissension, caused by the conversion of a portion of the population of the southern provinces to Catholicism, gave them (the Cossacks) another cause of disaffection. Under the leadership of an ambitious and clever Polish noble, Bogdan Khmelnitski, whom they elected Hetman, they rose in 1648, and devastated Volhynia, Podolia, and the Ukraine during 20 years. The Hetman, unable to resist the Polish arms, became a vassal of the Khan of the Crimea, and, finding his protection insufficient, swore allegiance to the Tsar Alexis of Moscow in 1657.

By the Treaty of Andrussy (1667),

Poland and the Tsar agreed to divide the Ukraine into two parts, the former retaining the Ukraine on the right bank of the Dnieper, and Moscovy taking the Ukraine on its left bank and the town of Kief. Southern Ruthenia remained in the possession of the Republic of Poland until the second partition in 1793, when the provinces of Volhynia, Podolia, and Kief passed finally under the Russian sceptre.

Topography, &c.—Although deprived of much of its ancient grandeur, the city of Kief is, nevertheless, one of the most remarkable towns in Russia. Picturesquely situated on the right bank of the Dnieper, or Boristhenes, it is divided into three principal parts, the "Old Town," the "Pecherskoi," also called the "New Fort," and the "Podole," the "Low Town," or "Town of the Vale." Each of these has its own fortifications. The banks of the Dnieper are here lofty, and on two steep hills are situated the Old Town and the Pecherskoi division, with their monastery, fortress, and bastions, separated from each other by a deep ravine, while the Podole occupies the space between the hills and the river, where the commercial affairs of the town are transacted. The site of the Old Town, in remote ages, was the Sclavonian Pantheon. There the worshippers of Perune, Horsa, Lado, and other idolatrous deities, rendered homage to their savage gods; and there the rough Christian Vladimir erected the church of St. Basil (still standing), on the spot long decorated by the temple of Perune, the Russian Jupiter. At the northern end of the high land on which the Old Town stands is part of another church that was likewise erected by Vladimir. The immense earthen walls of this very ancient part of Kief enclose, within a small space, several churches, and the Cathedral of St. Sophia. This magnificient structure was built by the Grand Duke Yaroslaf in 1037, on the spot and in commemoration of his victory over the Petchenegans. It is replete with religious and historical recollections. On the pillars which support the cupola frescoes have lately been brought to light representing departed members of the Uniat hierarchy, wearing the Catholic tonsure, with close-shaven chins. The church of St. Sophia was in possession of the Uniats between 1590 and 1633, when some of the frescoes on its walls were covered with whitewash, and thus preserved from the effect of time. There are some curious frescoes along the walls of the stairs leading to the galleries, descriptive of a boar-hunt and other sports, intermixed with drawings of musicians, dancers, and jugglers; all apparently cotemporaneous with the building of the church. Over the high altar is a picture of the Holy Virgin, in mosaic-work, by Byzantine artists. The Lord's Supper is also depicted in mosaic on the eastern wall of the ch., and there are many other specimens of the same work, more or less in a good state of preservation, and all of the highest interest, considering their extreme antiquity.

The marble tomb of Yaroslaf stands in the chapel dedicated to St. Vladimir. It is curiously carved. The principal relics in the ch. of St. Sophia are those of St. Macarius, Metropolitan of Kief A.D. 1495, decapitated by the Tartars in 1497. The church vessels and books are not very remarkable. Many princes of Kief lie buried here.

There are many other churches of ancient origin in this venerable town. We can only mention the ch. called the Desiatinnaya, supposed to have been built A.D. 989, by St. Vladimir, and that of St. George, erected about 1052. A small monument is erected close to it over the ruins of an ancient monastery of St. Irine. The remains of an old wall are carefully preserved as marking the site of a gate of gilt bronze by which the town was approached in the days of Yaroslaf.

The palace of the Metropolitan is close to the cathedral, and shaded by venerable trees. Some remarkable remains of ancient art are preserved in it.

The Pecherskoi Monastery, or Kievo-Pecherskaya Lavra, the first in rank in Russia, and the most ancient in origin, having been built in 1055, stands within the immense fortress of

Pechersk, and gives its name to that portion of Kief, which, from the eastern approach, has an exceedingly striking and picturesque effect. The churches and cathedral of the Old Town, grouped with those of this monastery, all gilt and coloured, and the massive fortress, walls, and bastions mantling the heights, seize at once upon the traveller's attention at the close of his laborious journey.

The entrance to the monastery is by a splendid gate, ornamented by full-length representations of St. Anthony and St. Theodosius, the two first abbots. The cathedral, dedicated to the Ascension of the Virgin, is reached by a fine alley, on either side of which are the cells of the brotherhood. The interior of the cathedral is in an elegant style of architecture, and on its walls beautiful representations of scenes taken from Scripture history are many and various; it is also resplendent with gilding, gold and silver, applied to all decorative purposes in the building, and on the shrines, the most remarkable of which is that of the Virgin, over the doors which open into the Most Holy Place. The lights constantly burning about the church, and the profusion of them about this particular shrine at the Vesper service, are insufficient to show to advantage the richly-decorated ceiling. The seven turrets of this church, with their gilt cupolas, connected by golden chains, and the superb belfry, which stands alone, and is upwards of 300 ft. high, add much to the external splendour of the place. It may be mentioned that the Russian annalist, Nestor, lived and wrote his Chronicle in this convent. Among the numerous other churches in the enclosure, that of St. Nicholas is the most worthy of a stranger's inspection. Within the walls of the fortress of Pechersk are the barracks of the garrison, the magazine, arsenals, and the houses of the officers. Near the fortress is a bazaar; and the quarter of the town behind it, which is regularly laid out, is partly inhabited by Jews. The best part of the town, containing the residence of the Governor and other persons of distinction, shaded by fine old trees, is north of the Jewish neighbourhood.

The renowned catacombs of St. Anthony, the founder of the monastery, are excavations in the precipitous cliff which overhangs the river; his remains are therein preserved at the extremity of the labyrinth. This passage is about 6 ft. high, but extremely narrow, and blackened by the torches of numerous visitors. The number of bodies here preserved is about 80, ranged in niches on both sides of the passage, in open coffins, enveloped in wrappers of cloth and silk, ornamented with gold and silver. The stiffened hands of the saints are so placed as to receive the devotional kisses of the pilgrims; and on their breasts are written their names, and sometimes a short record of their virtuous deeds. These saints had died a natural death; but the most distressing part of the scene is the row of small windows, behind which the martyrs had built themselves into a stone wall, leaving only those apertures at which to receive their food. The catacombs of Theodosius are to the south of those of St. Anthony, and are on a much smaller scale and simpler plan. They contain only 45 bodies, which are not so highly venerated as those in the other catacomb.

The pilgrims to this monastery and the catacombs amount annually to as many as 50,000, or more; some from one part of the widely-extended Russian empire, some from another. A few will toil even all the weary way from Kamchatka, collecting on the road the offerings of those who are either not able or not sufficiently devout to undertake the journey themselves. A short distance from the road which leads from Pechersk to the Podole, the traveller should notice a handsome monument, that marks the fountain in which the children of Vladimir the Great were baptized. It is a stone obelisk, 150 ft. high; and close to its base is a wooden crucifix, bearing, in Hebrew, Greek, and Latin, the words *Jesus of Nazareth, the King of the Jews.* The administration of the baptismal rite to the Russian people, at the period of the conversion

of their renowned Grand Duke, took place very near the spot on which this monument stands.

The Podole portion of Kief is well and regularly laid out, interspersed with trees and gardens, and forms a strong contrast to the old parts of the city, where, at almost every turn, the picturesque presents itself in great variety.

The University of St. Vladimir, founded 1833, is frequented by about 500 students. The library contains 107,000 vols., and the collections are equally complete.

The Nicholas Suspension Bridge over the Dnieper is one of the greatest modern triumphs of engineering art. It was built between 1848 and 1855, by an Englishman, Mr. Charles Vignolles. Its length is 6755 ft., and it cost about 375,000*l*.

The railroad from Kief to Balta and Odessa will be ready in the autumn of 1869. It will pass through the following towns:—

BERDICHEF, 194 v. from Kief, on river Gnilopiat. Pop. 53,000.

History.—In 1320 the land on which the town is situated was given by Guedemin, Prince of Lithuania, to Tyskewicz, one of his subjects. At the close of the 16th centy. Tyskewicz, the then Voévod of Kief, built here a castle, and in 1627 founded a monastery of Carmelites, to whom later he bequeathed his castle. As Berdichef was subject to the inroads of Tartars and Cossacks, the monks built a wall and dug a ditch round the monastery. In 1647 Khmelnitzky, Hetman of the Little Russians, took Berdichef and pillaged the monastery. The monks only returned in 1663, and commenced a lawsuit against the lord of the soil, who disputed their rights to the monastery. Their claim was admitted by a tribunal in 1717. In 1737 the monks began to build over the crypt which their predecessors had constructed about 1632. The superstructure was finished in 1754, when Pope Benedict IV. presented a valuable crown to the ancient image of the Virgin, given to the monks by Tyskewicz in 1627. In 1700 the Hetman Mazeppa confined the celebrated Cossack rebel Palei in the crypt, which is still called after the name of the latter. King Stanislaus Augustus permitted the holding of ten annual fairs at Berdichef, in 1765, from which date the present commercial importance of the town takes its rise. In 1768 Casimir Pulavski, chief of the confederates, after taking Bar, marched on Berdichef and fortified himself within the monastery with 700 men, and only surrendered by capitulation after a siege of 25 days. The town now belongs to the Radziwill family, who inherited it by marriage. Berdichef is only second to Kief in the extent of its trade, which is entirely in the hands of Jews (nearly 51,000). They purchase enormous quantities of goods at the fairs and seaports, and sell them wholesale and retail in the provinces of Kief, Podolia, and Volhynia. Markets are held twice a-week, and there are 5 fairs during the year; 14 (26) January, in March, 12 (24) June, 15 (27) August, and 1 (13) November. Those of June and August are the most considerable. The traders of Berdichef turn over about 40 millions of roubles during the year. The principal articles of trade are cotton and silk goods, glass-ware, hardware, salt, fish, cattle, wheat, and beetroot sugar.

VINNITSA, on river Bug. Pop. 10,000.

This town, now in the province of Podolia, was founded on the l. bank of the Bug in the 14th centy., and was anciently protected by 2 castles, of which no traces remain. It was frequently attacked by the Cossacks and Tartars, particularly during the rebellion of the Little Russians, under Khmelnitsky. In the 18th centy. the inhab. defended themselves against the Gaidamaks, or Cossack robbers, by shutting themselves up within the high walls of the Jesuits' College, founded in 1649, by Wladislaus IV. The walls are still extant, but the building was devoted between 1813 and 1847 to the purposes of a school, and later it was converted into a military hospital. The town was annexed

to Russia, together with Podolia, in 1796. A Catholic monastery of Capucins, surrounded by a high wall, and a Russian convent, founded in 1635 are among the sights of the town.

A few stations beyond Vinnitsa the train will reach the Balta and Odessa line.

ODESSA, on N. coast of Black Sea. Lat. 46° 28′. Pop. 119,000.

Hotels.—H. de Londres, on the Boulevard, the best; H. de St. Petersburg; H. de la Nouvelle Russie; H. de l'Europe.

Clubs.—Odessa, formerly the English Club; the Russian Steam Navigation Club; German Club (the resort of merchants); and the Harmonic, where amateur theatricals are frequently performed in German.

Commissioners.—Travellers should secure the services of a Jew "factor," or commissioner, with whom accounts should be settled daily.

Vehicles.—Drojkis are to be found at every corner; they have generally 2 horses; the fare is about 40 copecks the hour.

History of the Town.—In the earliest ages settlements or seaports existed on the N. coast of the Euxine, between the Dnieper and the Dniester. One of these was called Odessus, after a Greek town in Thrace, and was situated at a short distance N.E. of the modern city. The great migration of peoples which took place in the 3rd and 4th centuries destroyed those settlements and their trade, and for nearly ten centuries there is no account of their being re-established. It is supposed that in the 9th centy. that part of the coast of the Euxine was in the possession of a Slavonian tribe. Somewhat later, when the Genoese began to visit the Pontus Euxinus, they gave the present site of Odessa the name of "La Ginestra," probably from the circumstance of its being overgrown with the *genista tinctoria*, or dyer's broom; but they marked no settlements as existing there on their charts. From the 14th centy. the coast of the Black Sea between the Dnieper and the Dniester was claimed by the Princes of Lithuania. In 1396 Olgerd, a Lithuanian general, defeated on that coast three Tartar chiefs, one of whom, called Bek-Hadji, had but a short time previously founded on the present site of Odessa a fortress which he named Hadji-Bey. First the Lithuanians, then the Poles, held possession of the coast until the first part of the 16th centy., when Hadji-Bey and its neighbourhood fell under the dominion of the Tartars. Polish and Lithuanian merchants were, however, permitted to continue their trade there, and to raise salt from the lakes in the vicinity.

When the Turks began to establish themselves on the Black Sea, they placed garrisons and raised fortifications at several points along the coast. Thus in 1764, while making ready for a war with Russia, they built the fortress of Yani-Dunya, at Hadji-Bey. In 1769 the Zaporogian Cossacks burnt the suburbs of Hadji-Bey, but having no cannon were unable to take the fortress. The Treaty of Kinardji secured it to the Turks, who found it necessary to strengthen the works. When Russia went to war again with Turkey in 1787, the "Ataman" of the Black Sea Cossacks attacked Hadji-Bey, and set fire to its stores, but the fortress only fell in 1789, to Brigadier de Ribas, who commanded the vanguard of the corps of General Gudovitch, then engaged in making a reconnaissance at the lower course of the Dniester. On the 14th (26th) September, 1789, De Ribas led his troops to the assault under a heavy fire both from the citadel and from the Turkish ships in the roads. In a quarter of an hour the left face of the fortress was penetrated, and the garrison yielded. By the Treaty of Jassy, 1791, Hadji-Bey, with the whole of the province of Otchakof, was annexed to Russia.

A new fortress was founded at Hadji-Bey in 1793, and in 1794 its builder, De Ribas, obtained permission to establish a mercantile city in its vicinity. The construction of the town and harbour was intrusted by Catherine the Great to De Ribas and De Volant, who employed for that purpose the troops in garrison at Hadji-Bey.

Greeks and Albanians were attracted to the spot, so that in 1795 Hadji-Bey had a population of more than 2000 souls in addition to its garrison, and it was then named Odessa, after the ancient colony already mentioned. In 1796 the new port was entered by 86 foreign ships, and its commercial importance began to advance rapidly. The accession of the Emperor Paul put a stop to the works, and De Ribas was recalled. In 1800, however, the privileges of Odessa were confirmed, and a sum of 250,000 roubles was advanced from the Treasury for the purpose of finishing the construction of the port. The Emperor Alexander renewed the privileges for a term of 25 years, freed the town from the quartering of troops — then a great hardship, — allotted one-tenth of the customs duties to the maintenance and improvement of the harbour, and caused two new piers to be built. But the prosperity of Odessa is chiefly due to the talents and energy of Duke Emanuel de Richelieu, a French emigrant who was made its first governor in 1830. Eleven years later, when he was succeeded by Count Langeron, the population had grown from 9000 to 25,000.

The principal streets were laid out and lighted by him. He built the quarantine (in the old fortress), the mole, warehouses for foreign goods, and a theatre. With every opportunity of enriching himself, the duke is said to have left Odessa with a small portmanteau containing his uniform and two shirts, the greater part of his income having been disbursed in relieving the distresses of immigrants who generally arrived in a great state of destitution. His amiable and charitable qualities endeared him to all classes, and his departure was greatly regretted.

In 1817 Odessa obtained the privileges of a free port for 30 years. In 1822, however, it having become known that the freedom was about to be abolished, the foreign merchants were on the point of quitting the town, when the obnoxious order was rescinded, and Count Langeron, the governor, who had advocated the measure, was dismissed. The town owes much of its present greatness to Prince Woronzoff, who came to reside at Odessa as Governor-General of New Russia in 1823. He caused "the Duke's Garden" to be laid out, and a monster staircase on arches to be built from the end of the Boulevard to the shore under the cliff. Many educational and charitable institutions were founded during his tenure of office, the harbour was deepened, and many other useful works were begun and completed.

On the 10th (22nd) April, 1854, Odessa was bombarded during 12 hrs. by an Anglo-French squadron. The Tiger frigate went ashore on the 12th May near Odessa, and was set on fire by the shore batteries. The officers and crew were made prisoners of war, but not before they had burnt their colours and papers. The flag exhibited in one of the chs. at St. Petersburg as that of the Tiger belonged merely to one of its boats. The freedom of the port was abolished at the outbreak of the Crimean war, and the town now enjoys an annual subsidy in lieu thereof. In 1861 gas was introduced, and in 1866-67 Mr. Furness, an English contractor, paved the town very efficiently. Owing to the energy of Baron Ungern Sternberg, the railway was opened to Balta in 1866.

The imports of foreign goods at Odessa amounted between 1861 and 1864 to the annual value of 10½ million roubles, while the exports were officially valued during the same period at 30½ millions. Wheat is the principal article of export (17½ millions). It is brought to Odessa in bullock carts, in barges down the Dniester, Dnieper, and the Bug, and by the Balta rly. Wool is also exported in considerable quantities (8½ millions). The shipments of tallow are valued at a little less than a million roubles, and those of linseed at 2½ millions. The port is annually visited by 1300 to 1500 vessels, of which about 200 are under British colours.

Topography, &c.—Should the traveller have reached Odessa from the

interior of Russia, he will be struck with the bright and European aspect of the great mercantile city, which, built principally of stone, is totally unlike any other Russian town. Favoured, however, as Odessa is by its position on the sea, it is bordered on the left side by a dreary steppe of so intractable a soil that trees and shrubs, with the exception of the acacia, rarely attain any size, and in many places will not even live. A narrow slip along the sea-shore is about the only oasis of vegetation in the neighbourhood of the city. The climate is very unequal, and, the town being built on a limestone cliff of a very crumbling nature, the dust during summer is almost insupportable. There is also another and a greater evil—the want of fresh water; the greater part, indeed nearly all, of this necessary of life is brought from a considerable distance through an aqueduct. Artesian borings have been made to a depth of 600 ft., but the water in the wells is rather brackish. Fuel is very scarce and dear.

The principal promenade is the *Boulevard*, where a military band performs several times a week during the summer, when a stranger may see the *élite* of the place. There is in the centre of this walk a bronze *statue* of the Duke de Richelieu; he is looking towards the sea, and facing the monster staircase already mentioned. A *monument* to Prince Woronzoff will be seen in the square next to the Cathedral, in which he is buried. His house, a princely mansion, is on the cliff at the end of the boulevard.

At the other extremity of this is the *Exchange*. The *Theatre*, an elegant stone structure, with a peristyle supported by columns, is in the large square. Italian operas and Russian and French plays are performed in it throughout the year. There are 13 Russo-Greek chs. at Odessa, and no fewer than 20 Jewish synagogues and schools.

The *Cathedral* stands conspicuously in the centre of the town, and in the middle of an immense square surrounded by trees and by a balustrade, in which are four gates corresponding to the four cardinal points. This ch. is of considerable size; it is built in the form of a cross, and is surmounted by a large cupola. Two of its façades present fine porticoes, each with a row of columns. The interior is very chaste, spacious, and elegant, and its floor is formed of white and grey marble. Among the principal buildings in the town may be mentioned the *University of New Russia*, established 1865. This was formerly the Richelieu Lyceum, founded by the duke. It is a very extensive edifice, and in the form of an oblong square, divided by a line of building in the middle. Some of the *granaries* are worthy of notice; they are remarkably well built of stone. That of Sabansky, on the ravine, is of immense extent, and has an imposing appearance from the streets looking towards the *Quarantine*, which was formerly the fortress. The Greek and other *Bazaars* merit attention, particularly to a person landing here; they afford opportunities for observing local and national peculiarities.

Odessa is rich in public institutions, such as *schools* and *hospitals*. The *Public Library*, close to the statue of Richelieu, is small, but well chosen. The *Museum* contains many objects of antiquity from the sites of ancient Greek colonies in this part of the world, particularly from those of Olbia, Khersonesus, Panticapæum, &c. &c. Some of the vases and medals are worthy of observation, and a gold one of the time of Alexander is in remarkable preservation. And last, though not least in interest, is a japanned flat candlestick, once the property of the philanthropic Howard; it is preserved with great care. The sight of this relic will call up a host of feelings connected with the remembrance of his fate, and emotions of admiration and respect for his unwearied exertions in the cause of humanity. Howard's last words to his friend Priestman are characteristic:—"Let no monument or monumental inscription whatsoever mark the spot where I am buried; lay me quietly in the earth, place a sun-dial over my grave, and let me be forgot-

ten." And truly this remarkable man seems to be forgotten. His remains lie mouldering in the steppe near Kherson, and those who pass by his tomb are alike ignorant of his virtues and his name.

Odessa enjoys an *Établissement de Bains*, situated at the foot of the Boulevard, and *mineral waters* are sold at an establishment in the town garden. The public *slaughtering-houses* are on a large scale. Many thousands of cattle are there boiled down for the tallow. It is a singular, but not a very agreeable spectacle. A drive to the *race-course* and to the villas on the sea-coast should be undertaken by the traveller. About 2 m. out of town is a fine *country-house* and garden which once belonged to a Count *Razumofski*, who, having quarrelled with his next of kin, purposely squandered his fortune in excavating vast subterranean galleries on his estate. It stands next to a public garden which was once Richelieu's, and its present proprietor is Mr. Zarifi, a Greek merchant at Odessa, whose permission to visit the garden will be easily obtained. Another place of resort out of town, and particularly in the evening, is the *country house* that once belonged to Count *Langeron*. Music, fire-works, &c., are provided there for the entertainment of the public. There is also a *Botanical Garden* outside the town, but, as said before, the difficulties of soil, drought, and frost are highly injurious to the growth of plants. Melons are raised in the gardens in the environs of the city; they are of the most delicious flavour, and very cheap.

Divine Service.—There is no English ch. at Odessa, but Divine service is performed on Sundays at a private house, the clergyman being supported partly by the contributions of the British inhabitants, who are, however, very few in number.

Consulate.—A British Consul-General resides at Odessa.

ROUTE 13.

MOSCOW TO ODESSA, BY TULA, OREL, KURSK, KHARKOFF, POLTAVA, KREMENCHUK, ELIZAVETGRAD, AND BALTA.

[A great portion of this route may now be made by rail. Travellers must inquire before leaving Moscow how far the lines of railway have been pushed, and they can then decide whether it will be best to proceed by way of Kief, or to take the more direct route by way of Kharkoff, Poltava, Kremenchuk, Elizavetgrad, and Balta, even at the cost and fatigue of making several stages by post. Until the Southern lines are completed, it is impossible to give more than a sketch of the principal towns through which they will pass, especially since the fares, the time-tables, and other conditions of the sections already opened will be liable to great changes.]

SERPUKHOF, 92 v. from Moscow Stat. Buffet. Town very prettily situated. A great manufacturing centre, especially of cotton prints. Pop. 10,500. *Inn* pretty good. From the earliest ages Serpukhof belonged to the princes of Moscow, but the first authentic mention of its name occurs in 1328. In 1382 it was pillaged by Tokhtamysh on his march to Moscow, and in 1410 it was again sacked, by the Prince of Lithuania. Prince John Belski, deceived by Khan Devlet Ghirey, permitted the troops of the latter, numbering 100,000, to approach Serpukhof, which was at that time occupied by John the Terrible and his Opritchniks (*vide* Historical Notice), who thereupon retired to Kolomna, near Moscow, while Prince Belski, to avoid the consequences of his error, fled to Lithuania. The town walls, which will be seen on an elevation, were built in 1556

and have a circumference of about 500 fms.

TULA.—181 v. from Moscow. Pop. 10,500. *Hotels:* London, opposite Governor's House; and St. Petersburg; both indifferent.

Tula, the Russian Birmingham and Sheffield combined, is situated on the small Upa river. It is famed for its manufactories of fire-arms, and generally for its hardware.

The province in which it is situated was in the earliest ages the battle-field of the Slavonians and their enemies the Khazars, Pechenegians, and, lastly, the Tartars. Hence it is that it was but little populated, and its towns have preserved but few records. Tula is first mentioned as a city in a treaty of peace between the princes of Moscow and Riazan in 1383, to the latter of whom it belonged until the first part of the 16th centy. The last prince of Riazan having, however, been summoned to Moscow in 1516 and kept there as a prisoner, all his territories were annexed to Muscovy. In the latter part of the 16th centy. Tula was the centre of a line of defence erected against the Tartars—a line which, on one side, passed through Pronsk to Riazan and Nijni-Novgorod, and on the other through Msensk and Karacheff to Briansk.

Throughout the whole of the 16th centy. the Crimean Tartars continually devastated the southern borders of Russia, and frequently laid waste to the lands which now constitute the province of Tula. In the year 1552, more particularly, Devlet Ghirey besieged the town, assisted by the Janissaries of the Sultan, but was forced to retreat. In the early part of the 17th centy. Tula was the resort of robbers and criminals, who were permitted to escape thither in order that they might populate the province, and defend it against invaders. A celebrated band of these outlaws was the first to join the ranks of Otrepief, the false Demetrius, in 1605, who for a time made Tula his capital. Here he received the Ambassadors of the Council of Moscow, and hither were brought the Treasury and the raiment of the princes of Moscow. On the death of Otrepief, when a report of his miraculous preservation was spread, the citizens of Tula marched in 1606 on Moscow, but were driven back with the loss of their leader, Pashkoff. For some time Tula was unsuccessfully besieged by the Moscovite troops. At last the Tsar Basil appeared before its walls in person, but, still meeting with effectual resistance, the besieging army conceived the idea of reducing the garrison by inundating it with the waters of the Upá. A dam was accordingly constructed below the town, and in a short time the river submerged all but the highest parts of it, and the inhabitants were obliged to come out with offers of submission. The principal rebels were executed. Ileika, an impostor, who gave himself out as Peter, son of the Tsar Theodore, was hanged near the Danilof monastery (*vide* Moscow). But the peace thus restored was not of long duration. Other lawless bands succeeded, led by the second pretender, known as "the thief of Tushin." They tortured and killed the inhabitants for their loyalty to the Tsar.

The last military event in connection with the history of this unfortunate town occurred in 1613, when it was burnt to the ground by the Poles. Its peaceful history only commences with the reign of the Tsar Michael.

It is time, however, to mention that the town of which the history has been thus sketched existed some 10 m. to the N. of the present site of Tula. Nothing remains of the old city, and the new one dates only from the beginning of the 18th centy., when Peter the Great turned his attention to the mineral riches and industrial development of this part of his dominions. Although the more recent rise of Tula to the position of chief town of a province is due to the skill of its inhabitants in the art of gun-making, yet the first impulse to their industry was given so far back as the 16th centy., when iron-ore was discovered in the village of Dedilova, 20 m. from Tula. But for a considerable time the iron

produced at Dedilova continued to be almost useless for the purpose of making weapons of war, and consequently iron was imported from Sweden, and gun-barrels, swords, and guns from England, Germany, and particularly from Holland.

The Dutch were the first to establish iron foundries and works in Russia. In 1553, Akema, a Dutchman, and Marselius, from Hamburg, founded several iron-works and a gun-factory, and in 1633, Winnis, another Dutchman, established a foundry, and worked the metals by means of water-power, near the site of the old town. More than 600 artificers were brought from foreign countries, to teach the Russians the art of making guns, swords, locks, &c. Successive charters confirmed and extended the privileges granted to the manufactories, and from 1613 the Tula gunsmiths began to work exclusively for the State. Peter the Great caused a great number of young men to be sent thither, and to be kept at work under the strictest discipline. Small works were erected by the Government about 1707, but they were burned down in 1711. In 1712 works on a larger scale, still extant, were commenced, and finished in 1718, with the assistance of the Swedish prisoners taken by Peter, who by the year 1720 had 1160 gunsmiths at work, producing annually 15,000 muskets, 2000 pairs of pistols, and 1200 pikes. Twelve years previously, or in 1685, the number of artificers was only 122, and they did not make more than 244 arquebuses and culverins, many of which may be seen in the Arsenal Museum at St. Petersburg, and in the Treasury at Moscow. But the death of Peter the Great was a blow to the trade, from which it only recovered in the reign of Alexander I., when the Government arms-factory was made to produce about 13,000 various weapons per month (1813-1814).

Like almost all Russian towns, Tula has suffered frequently from fires, and particularly in 1834, when a large portion of its inhab. were reduced to beggary. The new small-arms factory, which is well worth seeing, was erected under the superintendence of Mr. Trewheller, an Englishman, who made the establishment one of the first in Europe. The lathes are turned by water, which runs through iron cylinders large enough for a man to walk in nearly upright; and by means of a warming apparatus, the working of the lathes is not interrupted by any degree of frost. In addition to the government factory, there are many manufactories of sporting guns, and a great number of locksmiths, the total number of establishments where iron or other metal is worked being about 200. Large quantities of cutlery are made at Tula, and an immense trade is carried on in brass tea-urns, used almost in every Russian house. The Tula ware of *niello*, and its silver snuff-boxes, &c., have long been celebrated in Europe.

The recent discovery of coal in the province of Tula and the continued richness of its iron-mines promise much for the prosperity of the town, especially since it has been made a station on the Great Southern Railroad. There is nothing to interest the traveller in Tula beyond its manufactories, excepting perhaps the old walls of the Kremlin, parallel with the rt. bank of the Upá. They were constructed in 1520, in place of an old wooden fortification erected 1509. They are built partly of stone and partly of brick. Catherine II. caused the walls to be surrounded by a dry ditch and a glacis, one fathom deep and 2 fms. broad. The wall and the towers, then very much decayed, were at the same time repaired.

Those who wish to study the coal measures of the Moscow basin should make an excursion from Tula in the direction of the village of Malefka, in the district of Epifan. There is a post road to Epifan, and from that little town to Malefka the distance is about 25 versts. The village belongs to Count Bobrinsky. The colliery of Malefka, which is superintended by Dr. Leo, a mining engineer from Germany, is now of considerable extent.

It will afford great interest to the geologist, on account of its limestones, which are rich in very peculiar petrifactions, (*Rhynconella panderi, Retzia tulensis, Spirifer inflatos, sp. amleatus, sp. anos offi, Productus panderi, pr. fallax, Michelinia rossica,* &c. The limestones are considered by Russian geologists to be Upper Devonian. They lie immediately under the slate clays of the coal formation, and their *fauna* is a transition from the Devonian *fauna* to that of mountain limestone.

Orel, 339 v. S.W. from Moscow. Pop. 43,000. Junction with Riga, Dünaburg, and Witebsk Rly. *Hotels:* there are two hotels at Orel, superior to those at Tula. The first is the old Posting-house in Karachef-street, and the other in Briansk-street. The latter is pretty fair. Talysen's *chambres garnies* are much frequented by the nobility of the province. There is no *table d'hôte*, but excellent dinners may be had at the Nobility Club House. Orel is the chief town of the province bearing the same name, and is a very important centre of trade. Its connection by rail with Riga, to be effected by 1870, will still further increase the advantages of its position. It is situated on the slopes of a somewhat considerable ravine at the junc. of the small river Orlik with the Oka, which here becomes navigable.

Founded by John the Terrible, about 1565, for the defence of the Grand Duchy of Moscow against the Tartars, it was removed from its original site on the Orlik to its present position in 1679, after a great fire. Its reconstruction was superintended by Jacob Van Frosten, who also built an earthen wall and towers, of which no traces remain. During the troubles at Moscow in the early part of the 17th centy., Orel took the side of the rebels, and in 1605 a party that had declared for the Tsar was seized by the adherents of the Pretender, and cast into prison. In 1611, however, when the Poles attempted to place their Prince, Wladislaus, on the throne of Muscovy, the citizens of Orel swore allegiance to the Tsar Michael, which led to the town being sacked by the Poles. But Orel has suffered less from its enemies than from conflagrations, of which the more severe took place in 1673, 1848, and 1858. In the latter year more than 600 houses, several churches, and a convent were destroyed, together with an immense quantity of wheat and hemp.

The town at present contains 9 churches of the Russo-Greek faith, of which the cathedral, dedicated to the Apostles Peter and Paul, was founded in 1794, at the cost of the nobles of the province, in commemoration of the coronation of the Emperor Paul, but was only finally consecrated in 1861. The bishops of Orel reside in a palace which was formerly a monastery, suppressed 1819. There are also a Lutheran and a Roman Catholic Chapel. The Gostinnoi Dvor or Bazaar is a handsome and extensive building. Orel possesses a theatre, presented to the town by Count Levashoff, on condition of its revenues being appropriated to the support of an asylum; also a public library and a public garden of nearly 20 acres. The finest buildings in the town are the Courts of Law (founded 1846), the Governor's house (1783), the Assembly-house of the nobility (1823), and a military gymnasium.

Much of the tallow and hemp exported from Russia comes from Orel and its neighbourhood. The yearly transactions of Orel in wheat amount to about 1 million roubles. It is brought there, for sale and shipment down the Oka, from the neighbouring provinces of Tula and Voronej, but particularly from Kursk. The sales of hemp and hemp-yarn likewise represent more than a million of roubles per annum, the raw material being grown principally in the province of Orel, and partly in that of Tula. Linseed oil, purchased in the provinces of Orel, Tula, and Kursk, is an article of some importance in the trade of Orel, its annual sales representing half a million roubles.

Large quantities of cattle are driven to Orel from Voronej, Kursk, and

other southern districts; they are partly melted down for tallow, and partly disposed of at Moscow. Candles and soap are largely manufactured out of the tallow. There is also a considerable trade in timber and salt.

Hitherto the extensive commerce of Orel has had two outlets, one by land, the other by water down the Oka. The goods despatched down the Oka are destined to be discharged at Kaluga, Serpukhof, Kolomna, Murom, Nijni-Novgorod, Rybinsk, and in part at St. Petersburg, with which the water communication is uninterrupted. By land, the produce of Orel is sent to Moscow, and to the stations on the rivers of the province of Smolensk, for despatch to Riga and St. Petersburg. The completion of the line to Witebsk and Riga must necessarily change the character and direction of the large trade of this town. Fairs are held 3 times a year: between the 6th and 20th January, the 8th and 31st September (O.S.), and during the 5th and 6th weeks after Easter. The first fair is the least considerable. The bazaar or market days are Sundays and Fridays. After the gathering of the harvest as many as 10,000 carts enter the town daily, laden with wheat, hemp, linseed, &c.

Kursk, 488 v. S. of Moscow. Pop. 28,000. Junction of Kursk-Kief rly. *Vide* route to Odessa. *Hotel:* Poltoratsky's, in Moscow-street.

The town is very prettily situated on the river Tuskor, near its junction with the Seim. The Kur, an affluent of the Tuskor, likewise flows past the town. The gardens that abound at Kursk give it a very picturesque appearance. Being in the centre of a rich agricultural district, a considerable trade in grain, tallow, hemp, &c., is carried on, much of the produce being sold at St. Petersburg and Moscow. Fairs are held on the 23rd April (O. S.), and during the 10th week after Easter; the market-days are Mondays and Fridays. Two very large fairs (Korennaya) are held at a spot 27 v. from Kursk, on the 9th Friday after Easter and on the 8th (20th) Sept. of each year.

History.—Records attest the existence of Kursk in 1032, and in 1095 the town is mentioned as being in the possession of Isiaslaf, son of Vladimir Monomachus. From its foundation to the Tartar conquest, Kursk passed from the Princes of Chernigoff to those of Pereiaslavl, and suffered much from internecine wars, and from the incursions of the Polovtses. One of these incursions, repelled by Igor Sviatoslavitch, in conjunction with Wsewolod of Kursk and other princes, is the subject of an ancient poem, well known throughout Russia. In the 13th centy. the Tartars destroyed the town entirely. It was fortified in 1586, with other places on the southern frontier of Muscovy; and from that time to the middle of the 17th centy. it met with great disasters at the hands of the rebels (1612), the Crim Tartars (1600, 1615, and 1645), and lastly the Poles in 1634. The *fortress*, of which only a portion of the wall is extant, was erected along the edge of a sloping hill, washed by the waters of the Tuskor and Kur, and having the appearance of a triangle. It was protected on two sides by those rivers, and on the other by a deep ditch, closed in 1783, and since converted into the "Krasnaya" or red (beautiful) square.

There are 19 churches of stone within the town; the cath. was built in 1733, and the ch. dedicated to St. Sergius in 1762. The latter contains a copy of the Gospels printed in 1698. In the Ch. of the Annunciation, built 1764, is a silver cross, sent by the Tsar Michael. The ch. next in importance is that of St. Elias, built 1768. There is also a Lutheran ch. in Kursk, as well as a monastery and a convent. The *monastery*, called the *Bogoroditsky-Znamensky* (Apparition of Virgin) was founded in 1612 by the citizens of Kursk to commemorate the retreat of the Polish Hetman Jolkevski, who had threatened to pillage the town. It was, however, burnt down by the Poles in 1634 and 1649, and was not entirely restored until 1680,

by the contributions of the charitable, and particularly by the bounty of Prince Gregory Romadanofsky. The cathedral within it contains a holy image held in great veneration—that of the Apparition of the Holy Virgin—an event that took place at a monastery called Korennaya, 27 v. from Kursk, founded 1597, and where a great fair is yearly held. Immense crowds follow the procession of the holy image to that place, and the latter remains there from the 9th Friday after Easter to the 12th (24th) Sept.

This image is reputed to have been found by the inhabitants of the neighbouring town of Rylsk, on the 8th (20th) Sept. 1295, in a wood on the banks of the Tuskor. It was discovered resting on the roots of a tree, and fruitlessly did the good citizens endeavour to keep it at Rylsk; it always returned, until they were forced to keep it in a chapel on the very place of its appearance, during a period of 302 years. When at last the monastery was founded, it was deposited there, but in 1615 removed to Kursk.

There are many public buildings on a large scale at Kursk, such as several gymnasia, an hospital, a lunatic asylum, and a house of correction. A large public garden attached to the latter establishment is the favourite promenade of the inhabitants of Kursk. It was presented to the town by one of its former governors, Patil Demidoff.

The rly. hence to Kharkoff will be open for traffic in 1869.

Kharkoff, 697 v. from Moscow, and 209 v. from Kursk. Pop. 52,000.

Hotel: "Vienne," in Moscow Street, close by the bridge overlooking the river. German spoken.

History.—The town of Kharkoff, now the seat of government of a province of the same name, was founded about 1650 by a band of Cossacks, of whom the chief, Khariton, is popularly supposed to have given it its present appellation, although the anterior existence of a rivulet in the vicinity bearing the same name is cited by others in refutation of that theory.

Its history is however far more ancient, as attested by innumerable tumuli and ruins, mentioned by chroniclers even in the 16th centy., as well as by the "babi" or carved idols of stone, and the coins both of ancient Rome and of the Khalifs, found in great quantities throughout the province of Kharkoff, and particularly along the banks of its rivers. Remarkable images, or idols of stone, are found exclusively in the southern part of the province, and continue to be met with in the neighbouring district of the province of Ekaterinoslaf, while the tumuli occur in greatest numbers at the southern and eastern extremities of the province which the traveller will now have reached. From the position in which these *monumenta illiterata* have been discovered it is argued by archæologists that the southern and part of the western district of the province were anciently populated by two distinct races which made war upon each other, causing the inhabitants of the western and northern banks of the rivers Donets, Vorskla, and Psla to protect themselves from incursions by earthworks. Some of the more ancient names of places may be traced to the Khazars, and others to the Tartars, by both of whom Russia was overrun in remote ages. At all events the races that inhabited the province of Kharkoff, and whose existence has left traces from the Enisei in Siberia to the foot of the Caucasus and the mouths of the Dniepr, must have passed away before the Christian era, for a Roman writer of the fourth centy. after Christ, while speaking of the Huns, compares their faces to the "roughly-hewn posts with the face of a man, such as may be seen on the shores of the Pontus Euxinus." The discovery of coins of Octavius (Augustus) and of numerous ancient weapons near the town of Chuguef (36 v. from Kharkoff) establishes the fact of an early intercourse with Rome, while the coins of the Khalifs found near Sumi (187 v. from Kharkoff) prove the existence of an early mercantile connection with Arabia.

Panslavists assert that the whole of the country under consideration was

peopled by Slavonian races before it began to be mentioned by Greek and Roman writers, but more impartial authorities are of opinion that at any rate the south-eastern portion of the present province of Kharkoff was the camping-ground of ancient nomadic tribes, particularly of the Khazars, who established their power from the banks of the Caspian to the very borders of Kief, the Norman princes of which at last drove the barbarians back. The northern Donets is frequently mentioned by old Russian chroniclers when relating the wars of the Polovtses and the Petchenegians. Many towns existed in its immediate vicinity, and are mentioned prior even to the 11th centy.

In the 13th centy. the province of Kharkoff became the high-road of the Tartar invaders of Russia, who, by their long possession of the country, gave many of the localities and rivers their present names. But after their great defeat at Kulikovo, in the 14th centy., outposts or posts of observation began to be established on the Khopra and the Don, and later still the watershed of the northern Donets and the Oskol is frequently mentioned as the battlefield of the Russians and the Tartars of the Crimea, who, in the latter part of the 15th centy., followed in the footsteps of the more ancient enemies of Russia, the Tartars of the Golden Horde, inhabiting the shores of the Caspian. In the 16th centy. those outposts were pushed on far beyond the confines of the present province of Kharkoff, and a regular fortress, no longer extant, was at last built in 1598 at the junction of the Oskol with the Donets. From that time the country watered by those rivers began to be populated, but dissensions with the Poles in Little Russia, and the turbulent events at Moscow that preceded the election of the Tsar Michael, once more threatened to arrest its natural development.

In 1638 a disaffected band of Little Russians, then subject to Poland, were permitted to place themselves under the allegiance of the Tsar of Moscovy, and were by him established at Chuguef. These emigrants were followed by others, who undertook the defence of the southern frontiers of Moscovia, and for that purpose were banded together under a military or Cossack form of government. The pretensions of Poland to this province were renounced by a formal treaty in 1647, which considerably increased the emigration from Little Russia, and led to the establishment of many towns, amongst which was Kharkoff, near the junction of the Kharkoff and Lopani rivers.

The ancient fortress of Kharkoff was of oak, and round it was a moat two fms. in breadth and depth. Later it was armed with 10 cast-iron guns and 1 of brass, while its ammunition consisted of 8 barrels of gunpowder, 402 shells, and 8 rolls of lead. The defence of the town was intrusted to a regiment of Circassian Cossacks, who had likewise emigrated to these parts. The dissensions in Little Russia that followed on the death of the celebrated Bogdan Khmelnitsky once more disturbed the peace of Kharkoff, for in 1668 the Hetman Briuhovitsky, having raised the Cossacks of Little Russia, summoned all the Cossacks of the Don and of the settlements around Kharkoff to join him in his rebellion against the Tsar of Muscovy, then accused of desiring to transfer the Cossacks to the Crown of Poland. The garrison of Kharkoff refused to join the rebels, who, however, penetrated into the town and besieged the fortress, which was at last relieved from Chuguef. For their loyalty the Cossacks, or regiment of Kharkoff, received several privileges and immunities in 1669. In the war that followed they took a prominent part, and, for the defence of their colonies, erected a wall between the Kolomak and Mja, and several new fortifications on the Donets, the principal of which, called Izium, subsequently became head-quarters of the regiment, and ultimately gave it its name.

Between 1679 and 1680 the Khan of the Crimea broke through the fortifications of Valki, a town 51 v. from Kharkoff, and, after devastating the country up to the walls of Belgorod, returned in safety, although pursued and partly beaten by the Cossacks of Kharkoff.

In 1693, 15,000 Tartars and Janissaries crossed the borders of the "Kharkoff regiment," and laid waste to the outskirts of the town, but they were subsequently driven back with great loss—a victory for which the Kharkovites obtained a new charter and 2 guns from the Tsar. These inroads were continued even in the 18th centy., principally because the Cossacks of Kharkoff refused to assist Mazeppa or the rebel Bulavin. Philip Orlik, proclaimed Hetman, in Turkey, after the death of Mazeppa, induced the Khan of the Crimea to invade the colonies of the Cossacks with 50,000 men, who were accompanied in that expedition by the Zaporogian Cossacks (or Cossacks from beyond the rapids of the Don), and by robber bands formed of the remnants of the defeated followers of Bulavin. The work of pillage and destruction was continued until 1720, when the Khan withdrew. No enemy has since molested the inhabitants of Kharkoff, whose military organization was reformed with that of other Cossack towns in the same province in 1765, when it was also made the capital of the Ukraine.

Trade and prosperity have since established the importance of Kharkoff, now one of the principal centres of trade in Russia. It has an immense trade in wool, and four fairs are annually held there—the "Krestchenskaya," or Epiphany fair, opened on the 6th (18th) January, being one of the most important in Russia. In 1863 goods to the amount of 2½ or 3 millions sterling were brought to that fair, the textile fabrics alone representing a value of about a million sterling. The wool sales take place exclusively at the Trinity fair, in June. Bazaars or markets are moreover held on Sundays, Wednesdays, and Fridays. They are particularly active immediately before Christmas and Easter.

Kharkoff is likewise a seat of learning, as it possesses a university, founded in 1805, and frequented by 600 students. It is situated in the centre of the town, the principal building having been formerly a palace of the Empress Catherine II. The scientific collections are kept in that building, but the library, containing 55,000 vols., is on the other side the street. The Zoological Cabinet contains a valuable collection of the birds of S. Russia and of the fishes of the Black Sea.

In the north part of the town is a *Veterinary College*, conducted on a very liberal scale and well worthy of a visit, as is also the *Government Model Farm*, about a mile out of Kharkoff, established 1847. The environs of the town are very picturesque, and the view from the "Cold Mountains," or still better from the lower part of Ekaterinoslaf-street, is one of the most striking that can possibly be imagined. There is also a large public garden, the Chinese pagoda in which was erected at an expense of 30,000 rubles.

A railway will be completed in 1870 from Kharkoff to Taganrog and Rostof, on the Sea of Azof, and it is probable that until then travellers proceeding to Odessa by the route now being described will have to post from Kharkoff to the nearest rly. station of the line which is being pushed on eastwards from Balta. It must be reserved for the next edition of this Handbook to give a more minute description of one unbroken line of rail from St. Petersburg to Odessa, the present break in that line being between Kursk and Elizavetgrad (*vide* the map).

POLTAVA, 842 v. from Moscow. Pop. 28,000.

Hotels: H. de St. Petersbourg; H. de Paris; H. d'Italie.

History.—Very little is known of the early history of this town beyond that it was called Stava in the 12th centy., and that it was destroyed by the Tartars in the early part of the 13th centy. Known later as Platava, Oltava, and Poltava, it was given in 1430 as an appanage to Lexada, a small Tartar prince, ancestor of the princes of Glinsk, who became related to the princes of Moscow through Helen Glinskaya, mother of John the Terrible. By other authorities the antiquity of Poltava is denied, and its origin is traced to the year 1608, when it became the settlement of some Cossack families. But it is probable that both accounts

are equally correct, for the older inhabitants still speak of the old and the new town, the former being situated on an eminence about a mile from the river Vorskla, and on which a cathedral, built in 1770, and a ch. erected 1707, will be seen. The new town occupies a splendid position on another high hill, and the river flows between the two hills and through the marshy plain to the wood beyond. During the revolt of the Cossacks under Bogdan Khmelnitsky, Poltava became a regimental town—a character which it lost in 1764 when the Hetmanate was abolished.

The battle of 1709 was fought in a plain about 4 m. S.W. of the town. A mound of earth about 40 ft. in height, surmounted by a cross, covers the bodies of the Swedes who fell, and serves to mark the centre of the field. An iron column in the town itself commemorates the defeat of Charles XII.

The present province of Poltava, like that, in great part, of Kursk and Kherson, anciently constituted the principality of Pereyaslavl, later known as the Ukraine. Traces of old earthworks and innumerable tumuli are found throughout the province of Poltava: the most considerable of the former may still be seen in the vicinity of Gadiatch, a district to the N.W. of the town of Poltava. It is, however, difficult to distinguish the more ancient ruins from those of a comparatively recent period, due to wars with Lithuanians, Poles, and Swedes. The Tartars likewise gave many appellations to villages, but these are more generally called after names given to them by the Lithuanians and Poles during their possession of Little Russia.

When Guedemin of Lithuania took Kief in the 14th centy., the country in which the traveller will now have arrived was annexed to Lithuania; and when the union between Poland and Lithuania was effected in 1386, Little Russia acquired the same civil and religious rights as were enjoyed by the Poles themselves. In 1476 Casimir established Voevodes and *Castellains* in the towns and villages of the Ukraine, whose oppression, according to Russian accounts, led to the establishment of Cossack bands who migrated beyond the rapids of the Dniepr, and whose descendants are now known as the Zaporogian Cossacks. The new colonies, attacked in their turn by hordes from the Crimea, were forced to unite under a military organization, which was subsequently governed by a Hetman, elected with the sanction of Sigismund I., King of Poland, who endowed the Cossacks with lands on both sides of the Dniepr.

They were thus divided into the Zaporogian and Ukraine Cossacks, the latter occupying lands in the present province of Poltava, and partly in those of Kief and Podolia, and consisting of 20 regiments. These military bands soon became the terror of the Tartars, and later still stood up in defence of their religion, that of the Greek Church, which was endangered by the intolerance of the Jesuits. The famous rebellion under Bodgan Khmelnitski in the 17th centy. resulted in a treaty of peace with Poland in 1650, and led to the annexation of Little Russia to Russia Proper in 1654. The Hetmanate was preserved until 1764, when the administration was brought into uniformity with that existing in other provinces of the empire.

But Little Russia remained for some time longer subject to the depredations of the Tartars, until the *Ukraine line of defence* was commenced in the reign of Peter the Great along an extent of 400 v. from the Dniepr to the Donets, and finished in 1732. The fortifications and earthworks on that line were defended by 20,000 Cossacks, but Little Russia was not finally freed from the incursions of the Tartars until Catherine II. subjected the Crimea to her rule.

As a place of trade Poltava occupies a very prominent position among Russian towns, principally on account of the fair (Ilyinskaya) held there on the 10th July (O. S.) of each year, and lasting one month. The average value of the goods carried to this great commercial gathering is estimated at about 3½ millions sterling; the number of

carts which bring them from Moscow, Odessa, Kharkoff, Kursk, and Voronej being more than 20,000. Russian manufactures are much sold, but wool is the great staple of trade. Horses, cattle, and sheep are likewise bought and sold in great numbers at that fair. Poltava has also long been celebrated for its leeches, found in neighbouring pools and morasses, and despatched across the whole length of the continent for exportation.

KREMENCHUK, 955 v. from Moscow; 113 v. S.W. from Poltava. Pop. 36,000.

Hotel: the Posting-house, tolerable.

This pretty and thriving town is situated on the l. bank of the Dniepr, which, by overflowing in 1820, 1844, 1845, and 1850, committed great ravages. The northern part of the town is protected from inundation by 2 dams at Kriushi village. Two other small streams flow through one end of the town, which is supposed to have been founded in 1571. It was burnt down in 1663 during the revolt of the Cossacks, and two years later it was occupied by a Russian detachment. In 1765 Kremenchuk was made the provincial town of New Russia, and at that time the celebrated Prince Potemkin of the Taurida lived there in a palace of which only the foundations can now be traced. Fires occurred in 1848, 1852, and 1856. Nothing is left of the old fortress or earthwork built by the Poles in the 17th centy. There are five churches of the Russo-Greek faith, of which the cathedral was built 1813. The finest houses are the Head-quarters of the Inspector of the Cavalry of Reserve and the "Invalides." The Town-hall is in the old Gothic style of architecture. The river runs at a very rapid rate opposite the town, and is passed in ferry-boats.

A large trade is carried on hence in tallow, salt, grain, beetroot, sugar, &c.; and the town is a great emporium of the raw and half-manufactured produce brought down the Dniepr from the provinces through which that river flows, and overland from Voronej, Smolensk, Orel, Kursk, and Little Russia. Between 1859 and 1862 the average annual amount of produce shipped at Kremenchuk was as follows:—

Salt	1,375,820 pouds.
Grain	382,248 „
Tallow, candles, and soap	48,252 „
Wool	21,668 „
Linseed	41,680 „

Fairs are held on the 30th January (during 14 days), 24th June (11 days), and 1st Sept. (10 days); all old style. In 1862 the sales at these fairs amounted to 85,000*l.*, and the value of the goods brought to about 110,000*l.*

The rly. hence to Balta and Odessa will be open in the latter part of 1869.

Steamers ply in summer between Kremenchuk and Kief.

ELIZAVETGRAD, 1071 v. from Moscow, and 116 v. from Kremenchuk. Pop. 24,000.

Hotel.—As the rly. from Balta will lead to the establishment of better inns, inquire at the rly. stat.

This town was founded in 1754 by Colonel Hosvat, a Servian, acting under the orders of the Empress Elizabeth, after whom it was originally called the "Fortress of St. Elizabeth." The fortress was demolished in 1805. Situated on the sloping Steppe declivities of the valley of the Ingul, Elizavetgrad has a very pleasing appearance, and is well built. It has a "Great Perspective" street, full of shops and a boulevard of white acacias. In the suburb of Kovalevka are many houses of the neighbouring gentry. It is separated from the town by a large square, on which stands the so-called palace, inhabited by members of the imperial family whenever they visit the town. Barracks and a riding-school will be found on the same *place*, which is further adorned by a boulevard of acacias and poplars. Elizavetgrad is a place of great trade in tallow, grain, &c. The most important of the 4 fairs held there is that of St. George (held on the 23rd April, O.S.) the value of the goods brought to it in 1863 having been above 300,000*l.* A large business is done at it in manufactured goods brought from Odessa, Wilna, and

Berdicheff. A market is moreover held daily, and the transactions are considerable, particularly after harvest time. There is a large garden belonging to the government, on the river Sugakley, 2 v. out of Elizavetgrad. It covers nearly 60 acres, and existed prior to the progress made by Catherine II. in New Russia. The tumuli of which the traveller has heard so much throughout his journey southwards begin to be numerous here.

The rly. hence to Balta and Odessa will be open in July, 1868.

Olviopol, 306 v. from Odessa. Pop. 4000.

Hotel—none. Travellers wishing to stay must continue to make the rly. stat. their headquarters.

History.—Situated at the confluence of the Siniuha with the Bug (which is here spanned by a fine rly. bridge), Olviopol, although a mean-looking town of wooden hovels, is a place of considerable importance as regards trade, being in the centre of a district abounding in wheat. The rly. from Balta, opened 1868, will considerably add to its importance, which in early days was in a great measure strategical. The Siniuha river was in the 17th centy. a Polish boundary, and a little below the mouth of that river, on the island of the Bug, once stood the fastness of Cossack sea-robbers, who more than once harassed the Poles, although not without paying dearly for it on several occasions. In order to put an end to the depredations of the Cossacks, the Russian government resolved to fortify the course of the Siniuha, and, in 1744, erected some works on the l. banks both of the Siniuha and the Bug. In 1764 the fortifications became the peaceful resort of traders and the seat of a custom-house. The great commercial highway from Poland to Otchakoff passed through it. In 1770 the fortifications were rebuilt, and in 1782 the site was raised to the dignity of a town, and called Olviopol, in memory of the ancient Greek colony on the l. bank of the estuary of the Bug.

The subsequent war with Turkey removed the Russian frontier to the Dniester, and Olviopol lost its military importance. The town now trends for about 5 m. along the 2 rivers, but it has scarcely any streets. Its southern part is frequently inundated by the Bug, which before the construction of the rly.-bridge was crossed with great difficulty and danger. About ½ m. from the mouth of the Siniuha are the remains of fortifications. The inhabitants of Olviopol are much engaged in carrying wheat in barges to Nikolaef, Voznesensk, and Odessa.

Balta, 194 v. from Odessa. Junct. with Odessa—Volochisk line (border of Galicia). Pop. 14,000.

Hotels: two, kept by Jews, but very bad. Travellers can wash at the rly. stat.

History.—Balta is the chief town of a district in the fertile province of Podolia, watered by the Dniepr and the Bug, and having more than a million acres of land under cultivation. The vine flourishes throughout the Balta district, and the grazing of cattle is pursued on a large scale. In 1860 it possessed 74,200 head of horned cattle, 11,300 horses, 38,000 sheep, 14,800 swine, and 200 goats. The immense trade in raw products, which is the consequence of such fertility and riches, is principally in the hands of Jews, who constitute half the population of Balta.

Thirteen stations beyond Balta the train will stop at Kulikovo, the rly. stat. of Odessa, for description of which *vide* preceding route.

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ROUTE 14.

MOSCOW TO VORONEJ, BY RIAZAN, RIAJSK, AND KOZLOF, WITH BRANCHES TO MORSHANSK AND ELETS.

This line runs parallel with the railway to Kharkoff and the Azof, and is destined to be continued to the country of the Don Cossacks. It is opened as far as Voronej. Fare to Riazan about 12 roubles. The principal towns through which it passes are:—

KOLOMNA, 107 v. (8 stats.) from Moscow. Pop. 17,000. *Buffet* at station. This town, situated on the rt. bank of Moskva river, is first mentioned by chroniclers in 1177, and until the beginning of the 14th centy. it formed part of the principality of Riazan, but it has been annexed to Moscow (of which province it is now a district-town) since 1305. It was frequently ravaged between the 13th and 17th cents.; in 1237 by the Tartars under Baty; in 1380 by the hordes of Tokhtamysh; in 1380 by Prince Oleg of Riazan; in 1440 by Mahmet, Tsar of Kazan; in 1525 by the Crim Tartars under Mahmet Girei; in 1608 by the Poles under Lissofski; in 1609 by the Pretender or Robber of Tushin; and in 1611 by Wladislaus, King of Poland. After the sack of 1525, John the Terrible caused the old walls of the town to be rebuilt, and they partly exist to this day. They had a circumference of 2 v., and were 8¼ fms. high, and 2 fms. broad, with 14 towers and 4 gates. The Piatnitski Gate is alone well preserved, having been restored in 1825. Of the towers, those called the Kolomna and Tainitski (Secret) Towers are in a tolerable state of preservation.

Kolomna was in ancient days the prison of many historical personages. In 1433 Vassili the Dark, the deposed Tsar of Moscow, lived here. In the reign of John the Terrible many of the most distinguished families of Novgorod the Great were exiled to Kolomna, which was also the prison, in 1611, of Marina Mniszek, the wife of the Polish pretender to the throne of Muscovy. In the 16th centy. it was thrice the gathering-point of the Russian legions that marched against the Tartars. In the Ch. of the Resurrection, within the Kremlin, Dimitry of the Don married Eudoxia, Princess of Suzdal. The present Cathedral of the Assumption was built in 1672 on the site of a cathedral built in the 14th centy. by Dimitry of the Don. There are also a convent founded 1552, and a monastery established 1799. In 1866 there were 16 manufactories at Kolomna, of which 3 of cotton goods and 1 of silks. A considerable trade also exists in wheat, salt, timber, and cattle. It is favoured by water communication with the provinces bordering the great Oka river, and by its fluviatile connection with Moscow.

Between Kalomna and the next station of Lukhovitsi the train will pass over a fine bridge thrown over the Oka river.

RIAZAN, 185 v. (13 stats.) from Moscow. Pop. 25,000.

Hotel: Steuert's Hotel in Astrakhan-street, very good. Rooms, 1 r. to 150 c. per day.

Riazan is very prettily situated on the small Lybed rivulet, which falls into the Trubej river at the eastern end of the town, and is distant only 2 v. from the banks of the Oka. It stands in the centre of a rich agricultural district, and carries on a great trade in rye. The province of Riazan, of which the town is the seat of government, was anciently inhabited by Finnish tribes, one of which, the Mestchera, still retains some of its characteristics, and occupies a district on the Oka, about 80 v. from Riazan.

The *Mordva* tribe holds large tracts in the neighbouring province of Tambof, and its members to this day preserve their characteristic dress and a distinct language. The women of these ancient Finnish races may be known by the ornaments which they

suspend round the chin, and which principally consist of small silver coins on strings.

The town of Murom, so called after another of those tribes, is mentioned as in existence before 862, but the principality of Riazan appears to have been founded at the latter part of the 11th centy., and to have been tributary to the principality of Murom until the year 1155. Later it fell under the power of the princes of Vladimir, but regained its independence and enjoyed it until its absorption into the principality of Moscow in the 16th centy.

The old city of Riazan, founded in the 11th centy., was destroyed by the hordes of Baty in 1237, and thenceforth Pereyaslavl-Riazanski, founded about the same time (1095), gradually succeeded to its importance, and now bears even its name. The fortifications of Pereyaslavl were rebuilt 1198. In 1294 the town is mentioned in connection with the miraculous voyage of the Bishop of Murom on a mantle down the Oka, first to Riazan, then to Pereyaslavl. In the 14th centy. the latter town was the scene of many stirring events connected with the history of Riazan. During the whole of the 15th centy., and until 1517, it was the capital of the Princes of Riazan. Although frequently attacked by the Tartars in the 15th and 16th cents., the town did not suffer as much then as in previous invasions. In 1513 the Ostrog or Citadel was taken by the Tartars, but they were repulsed from the town. In the 14th centy. Pereyaslavl was surrounded by a double wall, protected by 12 towers, and a wet ditch. These were extant in 1684, when the town was divided into two parts—the Kremlin and the Ostrog (Citadel). The former stood on an elevation at the mouth of the Trubej and Lybed, while the latter included the space between those two rivers. No trace remains of the ancient fortifications.

The *Cathedral of the Assumption*, on the square of the former Kremlin, was built in 1690, and is, from its great size, one of the most remarkable buildings in Russia. It was restored in 1800, and the belfry was rebuilt 1840. Its greatest treasures are 2 "miracle-working" images or pictures of the Virgin. One of them was brought to the old city of Riazan from Murom by Bishop Vasili in 1291, on the occasion of his wonderful voyage above-mentioned; the second "appeared to the people" in 1487, in the village of Fedotief: its *fête* is held since 1618 annually on the 2nd (14th) July, in commemoration of the deliverance of Riazan from an invasion of the Cherkesses. In the sacristy of the cath. is a cup which was gilt in the 17th centy. with the gold signet of Baty, who is reputed to have left it in the monastery of Bogoslof, in this province, on the occasion of his inroad into Russia. The *Episcopal Palace* stands near the cathedral. The *Ch. of the Nativity* was rebuilt in the early part of the present centy., on the site of a very ancient edifice. It contains the relics of the famed Vasili, first Bishop of Murom and Riazan, which were removed hither from old Riazan in 1592. In it are buried Prince Theodore of Riazan, his consort, daughter of Dimitry of the Don (14th centy.), and his son John; also his grandson and 2 great-grandsons. The inscriptions on some of the other tombs, now scarcely legible, show that they contain the remains of the Princes Tretny, descendants of Prince Theodore. Many of the bishops of Riazan of the 16th and 17th cents. are likewise buried in this ch., and amongst them Bishop Stephan Yavorski, "Defender of the Patriarchal Throne." In the sacristy may be seen the *panagia* or reliquary of Bishop Stephan; a great number of chalices and patens, mostly of the 15th centy.; the mantle of Archbp. Misaïl, who perished in his attempt to christianise the Mordva tribe; halberds, remains of ancient banners, &c. The *Monastery of the Transfiguration*, with 2 chs., is of unknown date, but it existed in the middle of the 15th centy. The *Convent of Kazanski-Yavlenski* was removed to its present site in 1787. The *Dukhof*, or *Monastery of the Holy Spirit*, near the Episcopal Palace, was founded in the 15th centy. The date of its

suppression as a monastery is not known.

Excursions.—Some of the monasteries in the province of Riazan are very ancient. That of *Solotchi*, at the junction of the Solotchi with the Oka, 18 v. from Riazan, was founded in 1390 by the celebrated Prince of Riazan, Oleg, the enemy of Moscow, and of Dimitry of the Don, and who subsequently took the cowl there. His remains and those of his consort Eupraxia, originally buried in a ch. which stood near the monastery, were removed in the early part of the present centy. to the crypt of the principal ch. within its walls, where also portions of their stone coffins, and of the coat of mail as well as the greaves of Prince Oleg, are deposited. The latter relics are considered to have healing powers, and are allowed to be put on by visitors. The monks will show an ancient image carved in stone representing the Holy Princes Boris and Gleb. The *Bogoslofski Monastery*, on the Oka 25 v. from Riazan, was founded in the early part of the 13th centy., and restored 1534. Within its 2 churches are many ecclesiastical treasures, of which the most remarkable is a holy image of John the Evangelist, painted at Constantinople, and presented to the Prince of Riazan. It manifested miraculous powers in 1237. Tradition says that Baty approached the monastery in order to destroy it, but, suddenly struck with awe, he not only spared it, but endowed it with treasure, depositing at the holy image of John the Evangelist the gold signet with which, as we have already seen, the cup shown in the cathedral at Riazan was later gilt. The handle of this miraculous image, preserved in the sacristy, bears an inscription relating its history, which is also mentioned in a charter given to the monastery by the Patriarch Adrian in 1692. The monastery of *Lgof Uspenski*, on the high bank of the Oka, 10 v. from Riazan, was founded by Prince Oleg at the end of the 14th centy. Its ch. was rebuilt 1667. The tombs of the princely family of Stchetinin-Yaroslafski (of the 16th and 17th cents.), stand on the crumbling bank of the river, into which many ancient tombstones have no doubt fallen.

An excursion may likewise be made to the site of the old city of Riazan, now a village about 50 v. from Riazan, on the rt. bank of the Oka, and 2 v. from the small town of Spask. It is still surrounded by an earthen rampart on 3 sides, while on the 4th or western side it is protected by the high bank of the Oka. The mounds in the vicinity have yielded many archæological treasures. A pyramidal monument of cast iron, erected in 1836, marks the spot where the body of Bishop Vasili rested until its removal to Riazan in 1592.

There are many fine estates in the province of Riazan. We may mention those of Jeludiova and Lakasha (of about 40,000 acres), belonging to Mr. Kolemin, 80 v. from Riazan, near the town of Spask, and the site of old Riazan. Travellers who would wish to make themselves acquainted with the Russian system of farming will readily be initiated into the several processes by one of these large proprietors, to whom an introduction may without much difficulty be obtained at St. Petersburg or Moscow.

Travellers bound from the S. of Russia to the fair of Nijni can post from Riazan to the town of Kasimof, 136 v. distant, in an E.S.E. direction. At Elatma, a small town E. of Kasimof, about 100 v. by post-road, but a very short distance across country, they will find a steamer which ascends to Murom and Nijni 3 times a week. See Rte. 8, Moscow to Nijni Novgorod.

Riajsk, 109 v. (6th stat.) from Riazan. Pop. 3000. This town is situated on the Hupta river, which communicates with the Oka by other tributaries. The date of its foundation is unknown, but it existed in 1502. Traces of its ancient earthworks are still visible. The merchants, who carry on a very large trade in grain, tallow, hides, &c., reside principally in the villages of Ukholova (1st stat. on rly. to Morshansk) and Perevlès, in the district

of Riajsk, and therefore the town itself is but little enlivened by trade. It has now, however, acquired considerable importance by its connection with Morshansk.

[*Branch Railway from Riajsk to Morshansk.*

Trains run several times a day to Morshansk, distant 121 v. Moscow time kept.

MORSHANSK, on river Tsna, Stat., Pop. 20,000. *Hotels*: there are several ordinary Russian inns. As the rly. recently established may cause some improvement in them, inquire for the best at the stat.

History.—The site of Morshansk was given to the Bishops of Riazan in the 17th centy., and from a village it became a town in 1779. There are 8 churches, of which the cathedral is a fine modern structure, consecrated 1857. The old cathedral of Sophia was built 1753. The town has been deemed worthy of a railroad on account of its great trade, due to its position in one of the most fertile provinces in Russia—Tambof. Tallow-melting is its principal industry. In 1861 it had 13 melting-houses, which produced 8300 cwt. of tallow. There are also a soap-manufactory, a distillery, &c. The tallow is principally the produce of the cattle which the merchants of Morshansk purchase in the country of the Don Cossacks, and in the provinces of Astrakhan, Saratoff, and Orenburg, to the extent of 20,000 head of horned cattle, and 100,000 sheep. Large quantities of tallow, in small parcels, are also brought from other towns, and remelted at Morshansk. The meat is carried to Moscow. In winter Morshansk is visited by merchants from St. Petersburg, Moscow, Yaroslaf, Vladimir, &c., who come to purchase the grain, linseed, tallow, potash, and other produce brought there from the provinces of Tambof, Penza, Saratof, and Riazan. The purchases of grain alone at Morshansk are estimated at 5,000,000 r. Saturday is the market-day. Hitherto all this produce has been shipped by the Tsna river to St. Petersburg and Moscow, but the rly. is intended to supersede the water communication.]

Route to Voronej continued.

KOZLOF, 198 v. from Riazan, and 89 v. from Riajsk. Pop. 30,000. *Inn:* Rogof's Hotel. This is at the same time the exchange of Kozlof, where most of the transactions in grain are concluded over a cup of tea.

History, &c.—Kozlof is situated on the river Lesnoi-Voronej, and was founded by Joseph, a hermit, in 1627, who was joined by other religious men, by whom later a brotherhood was established. Its cathedral was built 1839, and the oldest ch. extant dates only from 1772. This is also one of the great centres of trade in Russia, being in the centre of a black-soil district, rich in grain and cattle. There are 14 tallow-melting houses, 2 soap-works, 7 candle-works, 3 breweries and distilleries, &c. But the principal trade of the town consists in the sale of grain, of which 900,000 chetverts are bought up in the neighbouring districts, and despatched to Moscow. The tallow is the produce of 20,000 head of cattle slaughtered in the town, but a much larger number is driven to Kozlof annually, from the banks of the Kuban and from Little Russia; the cattle that are not melted down for tallow are sold in Moscow. A large quantity of salted meat is prepared at Kozlof, and there is also a large trade in horses, the province of Tambof, to which the town belongs, being celebrated for its studs. There are no fewer than 36 breeding stables in the district of Kozlof alone. The trade of the town is valued at 4,000,000 roubles, and the railroad will very naturally cause it to increase considerably.

Griazi (3rd stat. from Kozlof), on the rt. Matyra, a tributary of the Voronej.

This is an agricultural village of 2000 Inhab. A considerable quantity of fish is also caught here. There is a railroad hence in construction (1868) to Elets.

The mineral waters (alkaline and ferruginous) of Lipetsk, 3 hrs. drive from Griazi, are much frequented between the 27th May and 27th Sept. Kumyss, or fermented mare's milk, is likewise drunk there.

[*Branch to Elets.*

Elets, on Sosna river. Pop. 26,000.

In the 11th centy. this was a frontier town of the principality of Riazan. It was destroyed by Baty in the 13th centy., and is not mentioned again in chronicles until the end of the 14th centy., when Tamerlane approached it on his march to Moscow, but suddenly turned back towards the mouth of the Don. The town was then governed by its own princes. It was devastated by the Tartars in 1415 and 1450, and was only rebuilt in 1591. During the troubles caused by the appearance of the Pretenders in the 17th centy., Elets was always on the side of the rebels, and in 1618 it was seized by the Hetman of Little Russia. In 1745 it was totally destroyed by a conflagration.

At present there are 16 chs. in Elets. In the old *Cathedral* dedicated to the Mother of God are 2 very ancient images of the Holy Virgin, of which one was brought to the town in 1395, and the other was painted at about the same period in commemoration of the invasion of Tamerlane; it was restored 1779. The *Convent* of the Apparition of the Holy Virgin is of unknown date. It was burned down 1764, when the nuns were removed to Voronej, but it was re-established in 1822. The convent is surrounded by a stone wall with 4 towers. Within it is a fine belfry, of 4 stories. The *Monastery of the Trinity*, no longer occupied by monks (who were removed to the town of Lebedian, in Tambof, 1775), is supposed to have been founded in the 12th centy. The four small *chapels* are reputed to stand over the graves of the citizens who fell during the invasion of Tamerlane. The *Gostinnoi Dvor* is a very fine, large building. A prison on a large scale is being built opposite the monastery.

Elets is likewise an important place of trade. It has 10 tallow-melting houses, 14 soap and candle works, 11 tan-yards, and a large foundry. Its principal transactions are, however, in corn and cattle. Bread-stuffs, and particularly winter corn, are brought there from the provinces of Kharkof, Kursk, Voronej, Tambof, and partly from Saratof. The quantity of winter corn purchased in those districts by the agents of the Elets merchants amounts to 300,000 chetverts a year. This corn, mixed with spring corn, gives an excellent quality of wheaten flour, called after the name of the town, and well known in Russia. There are no fewer than 152 flour-mills in the vicinity of the town. Markets thrice a week.]

Route to Voronej continued.

Voronej, 496 v. from Moscow, on rt. bank of Voronej, near its confluence with the Don. Pop. 41,000.

Hotel: Abramof's Hotel, pretty good. There is also another good hotel near the governor's house.

History, &c.—Although the name of Voronej occurs in the 12th centy., yet it is uncertain whether a river or a town is implied. Travellers of the 14th, 15th, and 16th cents. omit to mention the existence of a town. At all events, the present town of Voronej, the seat of government of a province bearing the same name, was founded in 1586 by the "Boyar Mstsislavsky and his comrades." It was an advanced post against the Tartars, and the Russian citizens were called upon in those days to supply horses for Russian envoys to the Crimea, to

Turkey, to the Nogay Tartars, and to the Don Cossacks. In 1590 the town was burned by the Cherkesses, when the Voevod or Governor, Prince Dolgorukof-Shibanofski, was killed. In 1603 and 1604 it surrendered to the Pretenders, and was on each occasion sacked. It nevertheless began to acquire importance as a commercial city early in the 17th centy. The Tsar Theodore caused a new fortress to be built in 1672. It had walls of oak, 870 fms. in circumference, and 17 towers, besides a dry ditch. In 1676 the Inhab. numbered 5000. But its greatest progress was made under the reign of Peter, who first visited the town in 1694, and established a fortified dockyard. In 1699 Voronej had a fleet of 66 vessels armed with 2546 cannon, and carrying 16,814 troops. They were built under the superintendence of a Dutch shipwright, Peter Bass. When Peter went abroad he left Admiral Apraxin in charge of the naval yard, and on his return frequently visited Voronej.

In 1701 the building yard was removed to Tavrof, at the mouth of the Don, as the river had become shallow off the town. In 1702 Peter the Great caused 4390 men to be brought here from Archangel. Its bishop, the canonized Metrophanes, having died in 1703, Peter assisted at his funeral. The fires of 1703, 1748, and 1773 destroyed all the old buildings.

Voronej was the birthplace of two poets — self-educated men — Koltsof and Nikitin. The house in which Nikitin (who was a bookseller) lived is preserved. The two poets lie side by side in the new cemetery. A monument to Koltsof is in course of erection in one of the public promenades.

The town stands on a steep height, and consists of three portions, the upper town, lower town, and suburbs. The view from every part of it is truly magnificent. The principal street has a fine appearance, its sides being lined with handsome edifices, most of them government buildings; Moscow-st. is also very fine, and in it are the archbishop's palace and the cathedral. The only building that remains of the time of Peter the Great is the "Ordnance house" on an island of the Voronej. On the principal square stands a monument to Peter I., erected 1860. The town possesses a theatre, an hospital, a lunatic asylum, a prison, a government school, and many other institutions charitable and scholastic. The *Monastery of Metrophanes* was founded 1836, and contains 4 churches. Within the principal ch., built of wood in 1620, and rebuilt of stone in 1735, lie the relics of St. Metrophanes in a rich silver shrine.

Voronej is one of the most flourishing towns in the S. of Russia, and has a very large trade in corn, linseed, tallow, &c. It has also many tallow-melting houses, candle and soap works, &c. Four fairs are held annually; the best being those of the 9th May and 29th Aug. (O.S.). Markets are held 3 times a week.

Until the rly. is continued from Voronej to the country of the Don Cossacks, travellers will have to post across the country to Kursk, and take rail there for the Black Sea or the Azof. The more enterprising will probably make an excursion down the Don river, the ancient Tanais, which rises in Orel, and runs a course of about 1000 m., or perhaps even embark on a barge for Kalatch, from whence steamers leave twice a week for Rostof and Taganrog. There is also a rly. from Kalatch to Tsaritsin on the Volga. The Don is full of fine sturgeon, and the mode of catching it, and of extracting the caviar, of which such prodigious quantities are eaten, present numerous scenes of interest, and afford many instructive subjects of study. This excursion cannot, however, be undertaken without a good guide and proper preparation.

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ROUTE 15.

ST. PETERSBURG, MOSCOW, OR RIGA, TO TAGANROG AND ROSTOF (SEA OF AZOF), BY KHARKOFF.

For routes to Kharkoff *vide* previous Rtes.

A railway from Kharkoff to Taganrog and Rostof, 535 v. in length, has been commenced in 1868, and will be opened in the fall of 1870. The new line will pass through the town of Bakhmut.

BAKHMUT, on river Bakhmut, a small affluent of the N. Donets. Pop. 10,000.

This town was founded in the latter part of the 17th centy., when salt springs were discovered near the river. The salt-works were closed in 1782. A fortress was constructed here in 1703. In 1783 Bakhmut was made the chief town of a district in the prov. of Ekaterinoslaf. Large quantities of coal are found on the N. Donets. The extension of the railway will probably convert Bakhmut into a wealthy mining district.

TAGANROG, on coast of Sea of Azof. Pop. 42,000.

History.—Although Taganrog was only founded in the reign of Peter the Great, the history of the province of Ekaterinoslaf, in which this great mercantile city is situated, is full of events bearing on the fate of the present empire of Russia. The Sea of Azof was known to the ancients as the Palus Mæōtis, but they had very vague notions of its true form and size. The earlier geographers thought that both it and the Caspian Sea were gulfs of the great N. Ocean. This idea must have been dissipated by the Milesians, who, in the 5th centy. B.C., founded the town of Tanais on the N. side of the S. mouth of the Tanais or Don, at a little distance from the sea, and made it a very flourishing emporium, which reduced to subjection several of the neighbouring tribes of Scythians, known by the collective name of Mæōtæ, or Mæotici; but in its turn it became subject to the kings of Bosporus. It was destroyed by Polemon, on account of an attempted revolt, and, though afterwards restored, it never regained its former prosperity. Later the Genoese settled on the same spot, and called their town Tana, which was however destroyed by Tamerlane in 1395.

The site of the ancient Tanais and Tana is now occupied by the townlet of Azof, which was taken by the Russians from the Turks, who succeeded the Genoese, in 1769. Other Greek colonies existed along the coast of the Palus Mæōtis, but little or nothing is known of their history. All trace of them was destroyed by the wild hordes from Asia when they swept through the present province of Ekaterinoslaf to destroy the Roman Empire of the West. For several centuries the country between the estuary of the Bug and the Caspian Sea was occupied by wild tribes of Khasars, Pechenegians, and Polovtses, who are frequently mentioned throughout this book as invading the old principalities of Russia. In the 13th centy. came the Mongols, who, after ravaging Persia, marched over the Caucasus into Europe. The Russian princes who opposed them were utterly routed in 1224 on the river Kalka, now called Kalmius, near the present town of Mariupol. Thus the present province of Ekaterinoslaf was the scene of the first conflicts between the Slavonian races and the Tartars, who soon after under Baty committed the most dreadful ravages all over Russia. When the Mongol hordes

separated into three independent khanates, namely, those of Kazan, Astrakhan, and the Crimea, the province of Ekaterinoslaf probably belonged to the latter khanate. In the latter part of the 15th centy. the Mongols were driven out of Russia, and John the Terrible took from them the kingdoms of Kazan and Astrakhan, leaving them only in possession of the Crimean peninsula, which they continued to hold under the suzerainty of the Turks until the reign of Catherine II.

The country which they had vacated north of the Perekop was then taken possession of by colonists from Little Russia, who formed themselves into military brotherhoods under the name of Cherkesses (Circassians) and Zaporogians; the latter appellation, signifying "dwellers beyond the rapids," being derived from the circumstance of their having first settled below the rapids of the Dniepr. They were frequently attacked by the Crim or Crimean Tartars, and the possession of the province of Ekaterinoslaf continued to be disputed until the middle of the 18th centy., when, after many encounters with the Turks, the Turco-Tartar holders of the province met with a severe blow in the taking of the fortress of Azof by the troops of Peter the Great in 1696. The fortress was, however, surrendered to the Turks in 1711 by the convention made on the Pruth. By the Treaty of Belgrade, 1739, the Sultan of Turkey ceded to Russia the steppes between the Bug and the Donets. But they were of little use until the Empress Elizabeth caused measures to be adopted for populating the steppes and checking the lawlessness of the Zaporogian Cossacks, who robbed friend and foe alike. Georgians, Bulgarians, Wallachians, and Greeks joined the regiments that were formed for the purpose of protecting the then frontier of Russia against the Turks and Tartars.

Between 1740 and 1750 a large body of Servians, under Colonel Horvat, dissatisfied with Austrian rule under Maria Theresa, emigrated to the northern part of the province of Ekaterinoslaf, and, forming a regiment, established their headquarters in the fortified town of Bakhmut. The Servians were followed by Little Russians and Hungarians. Their settlements were protected by fortifications which were constantly kept in a state of defence. In 1760 the N. part of Ekaterinoslaf was dotted with military colonies which were called collectively *Slavo-Servia*, of which Bakhmut was the capital. Slavo-Servia was divided into regiments, and these again into companies, each having its own chief. The Empress Catherine, however, caused General Horvat to be removed from his command, and the *Slavo-Servian* colonies were converted into the province of Ekaterinoslaf, with a new form of administration. This lasted until 1768, when Russia went to war again with Turkey, and the Nagay and Crimean Tartars, led by Kerim-Girey, devastated the province with fire and sword. Azof, Taganrog, Kinburn, and the whole of the country between the Bug and the Dniepr, were restored to Russia by the Treaty of Kuchuk-Kainardji, and the Crimea became independent of Turkey.

In 1774 Prince Potemkin was appointed Governor of New Russia. He found the S.W. part of the province of Ekaterinoslaf occupied by the Zaporogian Cossacks, who had not assisted Russia in the previous war with the Turks, and, following the occupation of freebooters, had prevented the peaceful colonization of the country. This caused the Empress Catherine to order the occupation of their capital or *Setch* in 1775, and the steppes along the left bank of the Dniepr were incorporated with the then province of Azof. In 1778 Ekaterinoslaf, now the capital of the province, and Kherson, were founded, while the Greek colonists built the town of Mariupol. Suvorof was about the same time sent to the Crimea to keep the Tartars in order. Their attempt to rise in 1782 led to the annexation of the Crimean peninsula and Russia became for ever freed from its old and most inveterate enemies.

A dreadful visitation of the plague was the last event in the long list of

misfortunes to which this part of Russia has been subjected.

With the view of increasing the population of the now peaceful province, colonies of Mennonites from Prussia were established in the heart of the country of the Zaporogians. The province of Ekaterinoslaf was constituted in its present extent under the reign of Alexander I. in 1802.

Having thus traced the history of the province in which Taganrog is situated, it is time to speak of the town itself. Its site was chosen in 1696, when Peter the Great sent there an engineer to build a harbour capable of containing 200 small vessels, and to be protected by a fort. In 1698 the Voevod Tolstoy was appointed Governor, and the town began to grow in size and importance; but a visitation of the plague, in 1704, destroyed the greater part of the inhabitants. These were, however, soon replaced by new settlers, principally Russians, and an emigrant from Ragusa established the first mercantile house, which lasted until 1712, when, in accordance with the stipulations of the treaty made with the Turks on the Pruth, the harbour and fort of Taganrog were levelled with the ground, and the inhabitants removed. In 1769 a fresh war with Turkey enabled Russia to build a new fort at Taganrog, and in 1770 the neighbourhood of the old town began to be populated. Considerable numbers of Greeks from the Archipelago and the Morea, most of whom had served under Prince Orlof-Chesmenski, occupied the lands between the northern shore of the Azof and the estuary of the Mius, and now form the principal part of the population of Taganrog. The great event in the modern history of Taganrog is the death there of the Emperor Alexander I. (1825) while on a tour of inspection through the southern provinces of the empire.

Trade.—Of the three principal ports of the Sea of Azof, Taganrog, Rostof, and Mariupol, the first is the most considerable, notwithstanding many disadvantages, such as the shallowness of its roadstead (vessels having to anchor at a distance of 15 to 25 miles from the landing-place), and the absence hitherto of communication by good roads with the interior of the country. Nevertheless it is the seat of a custom-house of the first-class. The principal articles of export in 1866 were: wheat, 1,184,000 qrs.; rye, 95,000 qrs.; linseed, 193,000 qrs.; wool, 6,734,000 lbs.; tallow, 102,000 cwt., &c., the produce principally of the provinces of Ekaterinoslaf and Kharkoff, and of the country of the Don Cossacks. The imports are coffee, oil, wine, fruit, &c., from Turkey, Greece, Italy, &c., viz. from the countries which have harbours on the Mediterranean. The annual value of the exports between 1862 and 1866 has been estimated by H.B.M. Consul at Taganrog at about 3 millions sterling, and the imports at less than half a million sterling; while the average number of vessels employed in the carriage of those goods between the above dates was 755, of which 163 were under British colours, the latter having come to the port chiefly in ballast for the purpose of loading wheat, &c.

Topography.—The finest houses are situated in Peter or Bolshaya (Great) str. There are 4 large squares in the town, and in one of them stands the inevitable "Gostinnoi Dvor" or Bazaar of all Russian towns. Of the 9 Russo-Greek chs., the largest is the *Cathedral of the Assumption.*

The *Greek Monastery of Jerusalem*, under the jurisdiction of the Patriarch of Jerusalem, is one of the finest ecclesiastical buildings in Taganrog. The body of the Emperor Alexander I. was laid there until its removal to St. Petersburg. The most remarkable buildings, &c., in the town are—1, the *Palace*, a large stone house, in which Alexander I. died; the room in which the monarch breathed his last is religiously preserved in the exact state in which he left it, and may be seen. 2, the *Monument* to Alexander I., erected 1831 by the citizens, with the assistance of members of the imperial family. It stands near the Greek monastery, and consists of a colossal

bronze statue of the emperor on a granite pedestal; it was designed by Martos. 3, the *Granite quay*, for coasting vessels. 4, the stone *Staircase* leading to the Exchange. 5, the *Theatre*. 6, the *Exchange*. 7, the *Government Garden*, laid out in 1806, the principal promenade of the inhabitants. There are two other *gardens* outside the town, "Elizabeth's Park" and "Peter's Grove of Oaks." The former is about 3 v. from the town, and the latter not more than 5 v. There is in reality nothing to see at Taganrog beyond the house in which Alexander I. died. The town is neat and tidy, but the dust is terrific.

Steamers. — The steamers of the Russian Steam Navigation Company ply between Odessa and Taganrog twice a week, touching at the other ports in the Sea of Azof, &c. (Fare to Odessa about 40 roubles, including living.) Steamers also keep up the communication between Taganrog and the mouth of the Don (a passage of about 4 hrs.), where travellers proceeding to Rostof are transshipped into a steamer of lighter draft, which reaches the latter town in about 4 hrs. more. The route from Rostof to the Volga, &c., and the town itself, are described in Rte. 18.

ROUTE 16.

ODESSA TO THE CRIMEA OVERLAND, BY NIKOLAEF AND KHERSON.

The overland route to the Crimea lies through a flat and dreary country, offering no compensation for its many discomforts. The sea route should be preferred, but for the benefit of those who might desire to pay a preliminary visit to Nikolaef and Kherson, or to travel on thence to the Perekop, the following information is subjoined.

The voyage from Odessa to Nikolaef will be performed in one of the steamers of the Russian Steam Navigation Company which leave Odessa 3 times a week. Fare 4½ and 3 rs. Starting at 8 A.M. the steamer will reach at 5 P.M. the port of

NIKOLAEF, at the junction of the Ingul with the Bug. (Pop. 46,000.)

Hotel—bad.

History, &c. — The more ancient history of the coast on either side of Nikolaef will be read at Kherson. It will in the mean while suffice to tell the traveller here that the site of Nikolaef was first occupied by various emigrants after the destruction of the Cossack *Setch* or Republic in 1775. In 1789 the town obtained its present name in commemoration of the taking of Otchakof on the 6th (18th) December, the feast-day of St. Nicholas. It was from the first destined to be the harbour of the Black Sea fleet, the position of Kherson and Sevastopol having been found unsatisfactory. The first frigate was built and launched at Nikolaef in 1790, and a very great number of people were brought there and made to work in the dockyards. Prince Potemkin contemplated deepening the Ingul and many other great works, but he died before he could carry out his plans.

The town covers an immense extent, each house being generally of one story, with large gardens attached to it, and the streets are of enormous width.

The rivers Ingul and Bug form a fine estuary, in which during winter the vessels of the Black Sea fleet are stationed. The Boulevard, near the river, is well planted, and forms a shrubbery to the water's edge. This and other improvements were effected under the administration of Admiral Greig, Commander of the Russian naval forces in the Black Sea, and son of Admiral Greig, who won for the Russians the naval battle of Chesmé. The objects most worthy of notice are the dockyards. The Observatory is situated a short distance from the town; the view from its roof is very fine. The large barracks for seamen were built by an English architect, while the house in which the governor lives was erected by Prince Potemkin. Among the finest buildings of Nikolaef is its cathedral, dedicated to St. George, with an altar-screen painted by an Italian artist. It has also a theatre, and many fine public institutions, which render it, next to Odessa, the handsomest town of New Russia. The annual exportation of wheat from Nikolaef is valued at a little more than a million and a half of roubles, and there is a considerable trade in timber, cattle, tallow, and leather. The transactions in manufactured goods are estimated at 1,200,000 rs. per annum.

Since the fall of Sevastopol, Nikolaef has become the principal naval station of Russia in the Black Sea, and its increased importance and commercial prosperity have led to the British Vice-Consulate being removed there from Kherson.

KHERSON, on river Dniepr. Pop. 40,000.

The distance overland from Nikolaef to Kherson is only about 40 m., over a steppe country with every now and then greater or smaller elevations and numerous tumuli erected by ancient inhabitants. The existence of the Scythians in these parts is attested by Herodotus, "the Father of History," who visited the country between the Dniepr and the Dniestr in the middle of the 5th centy. B.C., leaving a valuable description of it. From him we learn that this extremity of Russia once formed part of Great Scythia, inhabited by a numerous population, divided into several tribes more or less civilized. On the lower course of the Dniepr, and therefore near the present city of Kherson, dwelt the Royal Scythians (principally on the left bank of the river), and the nomadic Scythians; to the west of them, between the Ingul and the Bug, were the agricultural Scythians, who were bounded on the N. by the Neuri, and by wild cannibals. The country between the mouth of the Bug (Hypanis) and that of the Dniestr (Tyras) was held by the Hellenic-Scythians or Callipides, who were bounded on the N. by the Alazoni.

In the days of Herodotus the Scythians had neither towns nor settlements, for they led a nomadic life, although some of the tribes were tillers of the soil. They were all gradually driven back from the sea-coast by the enterprising Greeks of Miletus in Asia Minor, who planted nearly 300 colonies along the shore of the Euxine. Near the mouth of the Borysthenes (Dniepr), and at its junction with the Hypanis (Bug), lay their capital Olbia, also called Borysthenes. Herodotus describes it as surrounded by a wall with many towers, and as distinguished for its extensive trade, and the civilization of its inhabitants. The greater part of these colonies existed in the early ages of Christianity, but they were finally reduced by the Romans, whose coins, found in considerable numbers, are principally of the Antonine epoch, —*i.e.* of the 2nd and early part of the 3rd centy. A.D. About that time the wild Sarmatians, and later the Goths, the Huns, and other races, issued out of the remotest parts of Asia and destroyed all before them, leaving only the tumuli which the traveller will see on his way to Kherson, and which have yielded such inestimable treasures to the Hermitage Museum at St. Petersburg (*vide* description).

The date of the arrival of the Slavonian races on the shore of the Euxine cannot be ascertained with any ac-

curacy. Mention is made of them on the Dniepr in the 7th centy. of our era, and Nestor asserts that Slavonian towns existed on its banks in his days. But however this may be, the nomadic Khazars, Pechenegians, and Polovtses, must have expelled the pastoral Slavonians and laid the country waste. In the 13th centy. the Mongols passed over the same highway, and for 550 years made the S. of Russia their great camping-ground and basis of operations against the Russian principalities. When the Slavonians were driven back into Russia, the Lithuanian princes hastened to take possession of the coast, but they were obliged at last to give way to the Turks and the Tartars, from whom the Russians ultimately conquered their present dominion on the Black Sea. After many struggles Russia obtained, in 1791, from the Turks the province of Otchakof, between the Bug, Dniestr, and Kodyma. The restoration of the ancient kingdom of Greece, and the expulsion of the Turks, now became the favourite project of Catherine, and she at once devoted all her energies to its realization. The steppes were colonized and the nucleus of a navy was laid on the spot, which has since become the town of Kherson—a name given to it under the then prevalent impression that the site chosen was that of ancient Khersonesus.

Potemkin began the work with great ardour, and in a year after the foundation of the new town the keel of a 66-gun frigate, "The Glory of Catherine," was laid in its dockyard, which had been built with amazing rapidity under the superintendence of General Hannibal, son of Ibrahim, the favourite negro godson of Peter the Great. Potemkin sent no fewer than 3000 carpenters and a great number of blacksmiths and other artizans to the new port. Guns were cast, and the construction of several other vessels commenced. In 1782, Antoine, a merchant of Marseilles, opened the trade of Kherson, under special permission. He was followed by the "Polish Company" and by Fabri, an Austrian merchant. In the midst, however, of its successes, Kherson was visited by so dreadful a plague (1784) that Potemkin was obliged to interrupt the works in progress, and to prevent all communication with the town. His chief reason for hastening the construction of the new harbour was a desire to show Catherine, on her expected visit to the S. of Russia, that the country from which so many foes of Russia had issued had become within a short time a Russian stronghold against the Turks, who were destined to be sacrificed to the favourite Greek project of the empress.

Catherine II. performed the journey in 1787, with extraordinary pomp, making the world resound with the splendour of her progress through her vast dominions. From Kief the empress proceeded down the Dniepr, and at a small place called Novyé Kodaika, a little above the town of Ekaterinoslaf, she met the Emperor Joseph II., who under the title of Count Falkenstein reached Kherson on the 17th May, 1787, for the purpose of having an interview with the "Queen of the North." On the 24th May Catherine arrived at Kherson with all her suite, and found there the nephew of the King of Poland, Prince Stanislaus Poniatowski, and the Russian ambassador to the Porte, Bulgakof. In a letter to the governor of Moscow the empress says, "We reached this town yesterday evening. This child did not exist 8 years ago. First we passed by the stone barracks of the 6 regiments, then turning to the right entered the fortress, which will stand well after it is finished this summer, and will be far better than the fortress of Kief. Many military buildings within the fortress are ready, others are on the point of being finished; the stone church is beautiful. When I say stone, do not imagine that I speak of bricks: the only stone known here is that which is taken out of the ground and placed on the walls; it is stronger than freestone, and does not attract the damp. Leaving the fortress, we turned into the Admiralty, where all the storehouses

are of stone, and roofed with iron. On the stocks we found an 80-gun ship, which will be launched, God willing, on Saturday. Next to it is a 66-gun ship ready, and another of 55 guns. I see them from the window of the room in which I write. The garden of this house is next the Admiralty and the wharf. I have not yet seen the merchants, who occupy a suburb. . . . . Besides the military there are great numbers of people here from all parts of Europe. I may say that my intentions in this part of the country have been carried out to an extent that deserves the utmost praise. A zealous care is visible throughout, and the people chosen are capable."

The empress spent five days in viewing the town, and in bestowing rewards. To commemorate her visit, she caused the following Slavonic inscription to be placed over the Cathedral of St. Catherine:—"Dedicated to the Saviour of the human race by Catherine II.;" while in the garden of the house she occupied she planted the seed of an apricot, which has since grown to a magnificent tree yielding nearly 400 lbs. of fruit. In the same cathedral she caused her favourite Potemkin to be buried in 1791, but the Emperor Paul ordered his remains to be exhumed, and to be "buried in a hole under the floor of the crypt, filling the crypt with earth, and levelling it as if it had never existed." Such was the vengeance of her son on the founder of Kherson.

To the English traveller Kherson is of particular interest as the place near which the body of the philanthropic Howard reposes. The monument to his memory stands near the Ch. of the Assumption and without the barrier of Kherson. It is a simple pyramid, with poplars around it, and is enclosed by a high circular wall with an iron gate in front. The inscription on it, translated, is as follows:—

HOWARD
died on the 20th January,
in the year 1790,
in the 65th year of his age.

It is sad to say that the monument is in rather bad repair, and the first letter of the philanthropist's name has been obliterated by some mischievous person. His virtues, like his name, have nearly faded away from the remembrance of the local inhabitants; for the yamstchik, if asked to whom the monument has been raised, will in most cases answer, "To *Povar*, a builder of towns." Contrary to the generally accepted account of the death of Howard from prison-fever, caught in the zealous discharge of his self-imposed mission, Dr. Clarke relates in his travels that in the month of Nov. 1789, Howard was requested to visit a Mademoiselle During, who lived on the banks of the Dniepr, at the distance of 10 m. from Kherson. In a light old-fashioned dress, in silk stockings, and without a great-coat, he set off on horseback. The day was windy and cold, and he had a fall by the way. He caught a cold, which was followed by a fever, and which terminated in death.

The traveller who wishes to enter the Crimea by way of Perekop is recommended to take the steamer which leaves Kherson three times a week for the towns on the Dniepr, ascending as high as Nicopol, a town of about 7000 Inhab., with a considerable trade in wheat and hemp. Many Mennonites, descended from those who emigrated to Russia from Prussia in 1789, occupy lands in the vicinity; their principal colony, however, being on the river Molotchna, E. of Nicopol.* The steamer should be left at

BERISLAF, on l. bank of Dniepr. Pop. 6000.

This town was founded by the Turks in about 1450. In 1696 Peter the Great took the Turkish fortress of Kyzi-Kermen, which stood here. It was called Berislaf in 1784. A third of the population is composed of Jews, who carry on a small trade in wheat and timber. The high road to the

* A very interesting description of these settlers, and generally of the S. of Russia, is given in Petzholdt's 'Reise in Westlichen und Südlichen Russland im Jahre 1855.' Leipzig, 1864.

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Crimea passes through the town, and the stations between it and Perekop, over a dreary plain, are

Kachofka, 5 v.
Tchernaya Dolina, 26 v.
Tchaplinka, 25 v.

PEREKOP, 82 v. from Bereslaf, and 132 from Simpheropol. Pop. 4000.

The isthmus of Perekop, by which the Crimea is connected with the continent of Russia, is about 5 m. broad, and stretches from the bay of Karkinite on the side of the Black Sea to the large lake called the Sivash or Putrid Sea, which again communicates with the Sea of Azof by the Straits of Genitchi. The isthmus is defended by an irregular fortress erected on the S. side of a deep ditch, and protected by a high wall built of freestone, stretching right across the isthmus, which rises slightly in the middle. The fosse and the wall are said to have been formed in ancient times by the inhabitants of the peninsula to defend themselves against the incursions of the nomades of the steppe. The *taphros* or ditch of the more ancient geographers, and the "new wall" of Ptolemy, lie about 1½ m. S. of Perekop.

The town and fortress were founded in the latter part of the 15th centy. by the Tartars. They were taken by the Russians first in 1736. In 1738 the fortress was retaken by the Russians, and blown up. Khan Krim-Ghirey repaired the fortifications, but the greater part of the inhabitants, mostly Armenians and Greeks, having suffered much from both Russians and Tartars, removed 5 m. S. of Perekop, and founded the colony of Armianski-Bazar, now a suburb of Perekop. In 1771 the lines of Perekop were stormed once more by the Russians, and the town was finally incorporated with the empire in 1783.

At the present time there is a bridge across the fosse, and a stone gateway, which presents rather an interesting appearance as seen from the N. In Armianski-Bazar, which is now the principal part of Perekop, is a mosque with two minarets, and a Russian and an Armenian ch.

From Perekop the post-road runs over an arid steppe, and is marked by handsome stone columns indicating the versts, which were placed there when Catherine II. made her memorable visit to the Crimea in 1787. The stations to Simpheropol are:—

Ushun, 24 v.
Dyurmen, 21 v.
Aibar, 24 v. At this station the Tchatyr Dagh bursts in view.
Ablan, 22 v.
Sarabuz, 22 v.

SIMPHEROPOL, 19 v. For description of this town, and routes leading from it, *vide* following route.—Odessa to the Crimea.

ROUTE 17.

ODESSA TO THE CRIMEA BY SEA; EUPATORIA TO KERTCH, AND EXCURSIONS THROUGH THE CRIMEA.

In summer the steamers of the Russian Steam Navigation Company leave Odessa twice a week for the ports of the Crimea between Eupatoria and Kertch, performing the entire voyage to Kertch in little more than 48 hours. On their return they touch at the same ports according to a time-table which is published at Odessa. They are very comfortably fitted up with a ladies' cabin, gentlemen's cabin, and a saloon containing a library and a piano; and there will generally be found on board

an officer speaking English. The living is good, but the charges, which are inclusive of board, are rather high, the fare first class to Sevastopol being 17 roubles.

There are no Custom-house formalities to be observed on landing in the Crimea, as the steamer will not have touched at any foreign port.

The traveller may desire to disembark at Eupatoria, which will be reached after a voyage of about 16 hours.

EUPATORIA, 76 v. N.W. of Simpheropol. Pop. 7000.

History. — This town, famous as the place near which the Anglo-French troops landed on the 14th September, 1854, stands on a sandy spit on the W. shore of the Black Sea. Coronitès, a Greek colony, is supposed to have existed in the neighbourhood in the days of Herodotus, or five centuries before Christ. In the 1st centy. of our era, Diophantus, a general under Mithridates, founded here a fortress which he called Eupatoria. At the latter part of the 15th centy. the Turks had a fortress at Eupatoria, and its name of Gezlévé was later changed by the Russians to Kozlof. As Geslévé, it was one of the most flourishing towns in the Crimea. It was occupied for the first time by the Russians under Field-Marshal Minnich in 1736, and later by the troops under Prince Dolgorukof, 1771. Annexed finally to Russia in 1783, it was made the chief town of a district in the province of the Taurida.

The trade of Eupatoria is inconsiderable, the exports (corn, wool, hides, tallow) not amounting to half a million of roubles in value.

There is nothing to be seen at Eupatoria except a rather handsome *synagogue* of the Karaïm Jews, who are distinguished from other Jews by their rejecting of the Talmud, and recognising only the Bible as their authority. An old mosque, built after the plan of St. Sophia at Constantinople, is the only other object of interest. It has 4 cupolas, and no minaret.

As the steamer generally remains about an hour at Eupatoria, the traveller, if so minded, can have a look at the town, and, returning on board, continue the voyage to Sevastopol: or he may procure a *podorojna* (order for post-horses) and take the overland route to Bakhtchesarai and Sevastopol, passing through Saki, 15 v. from Eupatoria, where there are mud-springs famous for their cures in rheumatic and paralytic cases, and through Alma, Tamak, and Burluk, Tartar villages. He may also make an excursion hence to the battle-field of Alma, which is more easily reached from Eupatoria than from Bakhtchesarai. For description of Alma, *vide* Excursion 4 (Bakhtchesarai to Simpheropol), and for that of the battle, Historical Notice. Although this route would be preferred by a native traveller, the English or American tourist will find it easier to land at Sevastopol, and still better at Yalta, and to make excursions to Bakhtchesarai, and other places from thence.

The steamer takes about 5 hours to proceed from Eupatoria to

SEVASTOPOL, near S.W. point of the Crimea, 38 m. S.W. of Simpheropol, 190 m. S.E. of Odessa, and 340 m. N.E. of Constantinople. Pop. 8000. *Hotels:* Wetzel's, on the S. side, clean and comfortable. The landlord, a German, speaks English. The charges are 1 rouble per diem for a room, and the other items are not dear. The house communicates with the Boulevard, from whence a capital view of the town, harbour, and various creeks may be obtained. The house was formerly the residence of Admiral Nakhimof. Kyst's Hotel, second best; likewise near the landing-place.

Vehicles.—These are rather scarce and dear. The fare within the town is 50 copecks per hour. The charge for a drive to Inkerman and other places in the vicinity is a rouble and a half the first hour, and 75 copecks for the remainder of the time. A bargain may, however, be struck for 6 to 8 roubles a day for a drojky and a pair of horses. The driver will begin by asking 10 roubles. Riding-

horses may also be procured. As Sevastopol is much frequented in summer, the traveller will easily find a party of his own countrymen bent on the same excursions as himself, and ready to share their cost.

Guides.—These will be obtained at the hotel. Spiro, who has been placed in charge of the English graveyards, knows the position of all those sad mementoes of the war. He speaks Italian, Russian, and Greek, but his English is very imperfect. Several Jew *factors* will offer their services, as well as carriages and saddle-horses. The proprietor of the hotel is always ready to arrange these matters for travellers.

History.—Before learning the history of Sevastopol, the traveller will desire to have a general sketch of the history of the peninsula itself.

The Crimea, or the Taurida, anciently called the Khersonesus Taurica, is a peninsula in the Black Sea, occupying an area of 564 square geographical miles exclusive of the Sivash or Putrid Sea, by which it is almost cut off on the E. and N. from the Russian continent. It is one of the few parts of Russia that were known to the ancients, and the first mention of it is in connection with the expedition of the Argonauts and the Trojan War. The remoter inhabitants of the peninsula were the almost fabulous Cimmerians, and then the Tauri, who are supposed by some authorities to have lived in the caves which are still to be seen on the hill-sides about Inkerman. Stone monuments, similar in character to the druidical remains in other parts of Europe, are likewise attributed to the same people, who were driven back to the hills by the Scythians who came down from the north, and eventually became known as the Tauric Scythians. The Greeks, who, as we have already seen at Kherson, established their colonies along the shore of the Euxine about the 6th centy. B.C., kept up a continual warfare with the aborigenes. In the 1st centy. A.C., Mithridates the Great, the famous King of Pontus, defeated the Tauric-Scythians, and made the Greek colonies of the Taurida subject to his rule. He was compelled to put an end to his life (A.D. 63) by his son Pharnaces, who, having hastened to make his submission to Pompey, received from him the kingdom of the Bosporus, with the titles of friend and ally of the Roman people. It was after a battle gained later by Cæsar over Pharnaces near Zela (in Asia Minor) that the former wrote the celebrated despatch to the Senate of Rome,—"Veni: Vidi: Vici."

At the downfall of the Roman empire, Taurida, with its Greek colonies, became part of the Empire of the East. The great migration of nations threw a certain number of Huns into the peninsula, which was later occupied by the Khazars. At the same time the greater part of the seabord remained in the hands of the Byzantines. In 988 Vladimir Prince of Kief conquered Khersonesus, and there embraced the Christian religion, which had been only partially introduced into Russia by Olga his grandmother in 955. Next came the Polovtses, and lastly, in the 13th centy., the greater part of the peninsula was conquered by the Tartars. During the same age, however, the Venetians and Genoese penetrated to the Black Sea, and founded colonies on its coast. Their principal settlement was Kaffa, now called Theodosia. The Genoese were strong enough to keep the Tartars in check until the 15th centy., when the latter constituted themselves into a distinct "Horde," and placed themselves under the suzerainty of the Turks, who had by this time taken Constantinople. By a common effort, in 1475, they put an end to the dominion of the Genoese in the Taurida. The Turks established themselves at the seaports, and the Tartars occupied the hills and the interior of the peninsula.

The Tartar city of "Eski-Krim," now called "Stary (old) Krim," 23 v. from Theodosia, was a place of great celebrity even in the 14th centy., and the Horde continued to exist under the dynasty of the Ghireys until the end

of the 18th centy. The traveller will have read in many pages of this Handbook of the dreadful incursions of the Crimean and other Tartars, and how they overran and held a considerable part of South Russia. The troops of Catherine II. began to drive them back in 1736, and in 1771 General Dolgorukof occupied the whole of the peninsula with his army, and caused Shagin Ghirey to be elected khan under the suzerainty of Russia. Kertch and Yenikale were then wrested from the Turks by the Treaty of Kuchuk Kainardji, 1774. In 1782 the Tartars rose against their khan, the vassal of Russia, and the Turks endeavoured to regain possession of the peninsula, which was thereupon occupied by the Russian troops, and formally annexed to the empire on the 20th April, 1783. Some of the descendants of the old khans are now officers in the Russian army. One of them was educated in Scotland, and married a Scotchwoman. In 1784 the peninsula constituted the province of Taurida and in 1802 it was made a "government," a term which has been throughout this book rendered by the word "province."

Ever since its annexation to Russia the Crimea has been an object of great solicitude to the Russian government, and, on the completion of the rlys. now in course of construction, its importance will still further be increased, notwithstanding the present powerless condition of Sevastopol.

The want of water is a great drawback to the Crimea. It is intersected by 49 small rivers and rivulets, but all of them are so small as to be fordable except after the melting of the mountain snows, or a very heavy fall of rain. There are about 400 salt lakes, of which the richest in salt are those near the Perekop. Vegetation is only luxuriant in the hilly parts of the Crimea. The oak, beech, and pine cover all the hill-sides, while in the valleys and on the S. coast the laurel, cypress, and many acclimatized species abound. The fruit of the Crimea is celebrated, and its vineyards now yield an average of 27,000 hogsheads of wine (600,000 *vedros*). Although wheat, rye, and other corn are grown, agriculture is not so generally pursued as cattle-grazing and sheep-farming. Merino sheep were introduced in 1804, and the breed has been well kept to this day. The climate of the peninsula is very healthy, except in some of the valleys, where the air does not circulate so freely, and its mean annual temperature is as follows:—

Simpheropol	+ 7° 7′ R. (about 48° F.)
Sevastopol	+ 10° 0′ R. (about 55° F.)

The mean temperature of those places in summer is severally + 15° 6′ and + 18° 1′ R., or 67° and 73° F.

The annual rainfall at Simpheropol is 14·83 inches, and at Sevastopol 7·67 inches.

But to revert to Sevastopol. Its history, prior to the memorable siege, may be told in a very few words. When the Crimea was annexed to Russia, Catherine ordered an expedition to be sent round the coast for the purpose of surveying the bay of Aktiar, or "White Rock," where the Tartars had a small village. Vice-Admiral Klokachef entered the bay with the Azof flotilla, which he commanded, and, having reported favourably of its capabilities, Rear-Admiral Mackenzie, one of the many Englishmen in the Russian service, and later Colonel Upton, were charged with the construction of a military harbour. With great activity the former constructed barracks, storehouses, a navy yard, and an hospital, the materials used in their construction being the historical stones of Khersonesus. In 1784 the empress ordered the port to be called Sevastopol.*

* A note to Mr. H. D. Seymour's work says,—"Sevastopol or Sevastopolis, is composed of two Greek words 'Sebastos,' meaning Augustus, and 'polis,' a city; and it was the name of a Greek city of the Lower Empire on the eastern coast of the Black Sea in Abkhasia." Dr. Charnock is of opinion that the name means "Sovereign" or "most sacred city." In his work entitled 'Local Etymology,' London, 1858, the etymology of many Russian geographical names will be found.

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In 1787 she passed two days there together with the Emperor Joseph II., who had accompanied her from Kherson. At a great outlay of money, Sevastopol became, under successive sovereigns, one of the finest military harbours in Europe. The traveller will now proceed to inspect its ruins.

A large bay divides Sevastopol into two parts — the northern and the southern. On the left or northern side the traveller will see, on steaming up the bay, some of the fortifications, and particularly the gigantic Fort Constantine, of 3 stories. There also will be seen a few houses and buildings, which have for the most part been raised during and since the war. The town lies on the rt. side of the narrow creek on the S., which runs parallel with the great or northern bay. On the l. or Korabelnaya side of the creek were once the docks, barracks, hospital, &c., now a mass of ruins.

The steamer will bring up at the entrance of the southern creek, near to what was formerly known as the "Grafskaya Pristan," or "Count's Landing Place"—broad stone stairs, leading down to the water's edge, with a pavilion above, formed of 2 rows of white columns, covered in at the top. A splendid view of the sea is obtained from the top of these stairs, and if the night be moonlit the tourist will be attracted to the spot by the wonderful beauty of the scene. Near the stairs will be seen the ruins of Fort Nicholas, which once had 3 ranges of bastions, one above the other, and was mounted with 260 cannon, the fire of which was intended to cross that of the batteries of the Admiralty. A short distance from here are the two hotels already mentioned, and the office of the Russian Steam Navigation Company.

On landing, the traveller will find himself surrounded by ruins. The first object that will strike him will be a badly designed *Monument to Kazarski*, a Russian naval commander, who, in 1828-29, captured 2 Turkish frigates which had attacked his brig. It stands on the *Boulevard*, at the end of which will be seen the walls of a large house, once the "Assembly Hall of the Nobility." Past the boulevard (on which the traveller will find a *restaurant*) the town continues to present itself in a mass of ruins, with here and there a house rebuilt. Not far from the end of the boulevard, on a slight elevation, is a large *Ch.*, dedicated to *St. Vladimir*, in course of construction. In it are buried the Russian admirals, Lazaref, Kornilof, Istomin, and Nakhimof. The first-named died 3 years before the siege. A monument to the 3 defenders of Sevastopol will be erected later within the ch.

The town spreads along the whole of the southern bay, and rises gradually towards the S. Beyond its further houses begin the ruins of its fortifications and batteries, the trenches of the besiegers, their exploded mines, &c. Most of these works have been filled up and levelled, but it is still easy to distinguish where the Russian earthworks and bastions terminated, and where the siege-works and batteries of the allies began. The centre of the Russian line of defence was the "*Fourth Bastion*," or *Flagstaff Battery*, now a gentle elevation which will be pointed out by the cicerone. Most of the mines were directed against it.

From the highest point of this elevation a fine view of Sevastopol will be obtained.

In order to get to the *Malakhof Tower*, the traveller will have to drive round the whole of the S. side, past the huge ruins of the Naval Barracks and Hospital. It stands at the end of what was then the *Korabelnaya Sloboda*, or village, marked by the monument to Admiral Lazaref. Its capture by the French on the 8th September, 1855, decided the fate of Sevastopol. No fewer than 30,000 Russians are said to have perished in its defence during the siege. Outside the Malakhof are the ruins of the Yellow Tower, which was at first the only work that protected the Malakhof *Kurgan*, or Mound. During the first bombardment all its guns were dismounted, and then were erected those formidable earthworks which became the key to Sevastopol. The lower tier of the Yellow Tower is

still partly preserved. An unexploded mine will be pointed out in it. Here the siege-works of the French will be traced. They are partly filled up, and are all overgrown with prickly plants. It will be remembered that Admiral Kornilof was killed on the Malakhof, which was so called after a warrant-officer of the Russian navy, who in peaceful days made the *Kurgan* his favourite walk, and subsequently committed suicide there, leaving his name to be borne by a marshal of France. In front of the *Kurgan* is a slight eminence which was once the *Kamchatka Redoubt.*

The Redan, Great and Little (3rd and 2nd bastions), will be distinguished in the neighbourhood by their monuments. Their description, and that of the other works on this side, must be left to the guide, whose chronology may be checked by a reference to the historical notice.

At the foot of the great stairs the tourist will find a ferry-boat in which he can cross over to the N. side, and view the Russian cemetery, the most prominent object in which is the huge grey pyramid (105 ft. high) surmounted by a cross, raised to the memory of the troops who fell in defence of the city. The interior of the pyramid is converted into a chapel, where prayers will be offered for the repose of the souls totalled up in thousands on the black boards outside. On the terrace in front are some English guns taken from the Turks at Balaclava. The monument to Prince Gortchakoff, the Commander-in-Chief of the Russian forces in the Crimea, and who died at Warsaw in 1861, is in this cemetery. It is in the form of a chapel which contains holy images and the marble bust of the Prince, with an inscription to the effect that "he died at Warsaw, and desired that his body should be buried amidst those defenders of their country who did not permit the enemy to enter their fatherland farther than the place where their graves now stand."

After rambling about the ruins, and viewing both sides of Sevastopol during the first day of his arrival, the English traveller will probably wish to visit some of the British cemeteries. A description of these, and of the several excursions to be made in the Crimea, is subjoined, in the following order:—

1. The British cemeteries.
2. Drive to Khersonesus, French cemetery, monastery of St. George, and Balaclava.
3. Sevastopol to Bakhtchisarai, passing through the valley of Inkerman.
4. Bakhtchisarai to Simpheropol, crossing the valley of the Alma.
5. Sevastopol to Alupka, through the valley of Baidar.
6. Alupka to Yalta, through Livadia.
7. Yalta to Alushta.
8. Alushta to Simpheropol, and ascent of the Tchatyr-Dagh.
9. Simpheropol to Theodosia, viâ Karasu Bazar and Stary-Krim.
10. Alushta to Theodosia and Kertch.

Some travellers will prefer making Yalta their headquarters, going there direct by steamer in 30 hrs. from Odessa. The excursions would then be:—1. from Yalta to Sevastopol; 2. from Sevastopol to Bakhtchisarai, by way of Mangup Kalé; 3. thence to Simpheropol; 4. back to Yalta by way of the Tchatyr-Dagh; and 5. Yalta to Kertch. The information conveyed in the following sketches of the excursions from Sevastopol will, however, enable the traveller to take the Yalta route should he prefer it.

1.—*The British Cemeteries.*

In order to assist the traveller in finding these, we cannot do better than refer him to the following extract from a Report made to H. M. Government by Mr. Consul Eldrige in Nov. 1861.* "The number of cemeteries of British officers and men who fell during the war of 1854, 1855, and 1856, which I have been able to discover in the neighbourhood of Sevas-

* The Report, printed by H. M. Government, gives an alphabetical list of the officers and privates whose names are recorded on the monuments, and also shows in what group each monument is to be found.

topol, Balaclava, Kadikoi, Karani, and Kamara is 126; they are spread over a space of ground measuring about 12 m. from E. to W., and about 8 m. from N. to S., and they extend in the form of an amphitheatre from the heights of Inkerman, passing through the old camps of the British army, near the British headquarters, towards the monastery of St. George, through the villages of Karani, Kadikoi, and Balaclava, to Kamara. They contain nearly 600 monuments of various kinds, from handsome marble slabs, obelisks, &c., to humble wooden crosses and boards: of these latter many have fallen down, and still more have their inscriptions effaced by the effects of time and weather; of these no description has been taken, or of the smaller stones from which the inscriptions have disappeared."

In order to identify the several cemeteries, Mr. Consul Eldrige has divided them into the following groups from A to K:—"Group A includes the cemeteries on the northern slope of the field of Inkerman towards the river Tchernaya, and contains 12 cemeteries. Group B includes those immediately on the field of the battle of Inkerman, from the monument to where the Second Division was encamped in Nov. 1854, including the graveyard of the 49th Regiment in a small ravine to the right, and it contains 8 graveyards. Group C includes the graveyards in the immediate vicinity of the old windmill, so well known to all who were in the Crimea; this group contains 6 graveyards. Group D extends from the trenches in front of the Redan, through the camp of the Light Division to beyond the military road, and may be said to be bounded to the E by the Victoria Redoubt, and to the W. by the Woronzoff Road, and includes 12 cemeteries. Group E comprises the cemeteries in the ravine that runs through the camp of the Second Division from the Woronzoff Road to the railway; it is bounded to the N. and E. by the Woronzoff Road, and to the W. by Cathcart's Hill, and contains 11 graveyards. Group F, or Cathcart's Hill group, embraces the whole of the ground occupied by the camps of the Third and Fourth Divisions, and by the Naval Brigade; it contains 23 cemeteries. Group G runs along the heights overlooking the plains of Balaclava, past headquarters, towards the monastery of St. George, and contains 10 cemeteries. Group H commences in the plains of Balaclava, includes the villages of Kadikoi and Karani, to the monastery of St. George, and includes 24 graveyards. Group I comprises the immediate neighbourhood of Balaclava; there are 15 graveyards in this group. Group K comprises the positions occupied by the Highland Division at Kamara in 1855 and 1856, and numbers 4 cemeteries. In addition to the above 10 groups, there is a graveyard used by the fleet on the N. side of Kazatch Bay, which by its isolated position could not be classified with the other cemeteries."

2.—*Drive to Khersonesus, French Cemetery, Monastery of St. George, and Balaclava.*

This will be a long day's work, and the tourist must start early. He will first cross a small valley which runs up from one of the creeks, and then turn round the head of what was formerly "Quarantine Bay." On the road thence to Khersonesus, which is only about 3 m. from Sevastopol, a large cemetery will be passed. This was the burying-ground of the Russians before the Crimean war, and it remained in the hands of the French during the siege. A large ch. stands in the centre of it. A little beyond, the tourist will come to some ancient wells with which the history of the ruins before him is intimately connected.

Khersonesus. This ancient city took its name from the small peninsula on which it stands, and which was called by the ancients the Khersonesus Heracleoticus. The peninsula was called Heracleotic because its famous city was built 7 cents. before Christ

by colonists from Heraclea, a town on the opposite coast of the Black Sea.* This little peninsula of a peninsula is high and rocky, and is on three sides surrounded by water, while on the land side it is cut off from the rest of the Crimea by a low valley running between Inkerman and Balaclava. A wall which marked its limits may still be traced running from the Tchernaya Retchka, a little above Inkerman, to Balaclava, for a distance of 5 m., at the foot of the hills, extending parallel with the valley on which the main part of the British army, and later the division of General Bosquet, were encamped. The whole of this enclosure was in ancient times occupied by the gardens and villas of the inhabitants of Khersonesus, and the space within the wall is covered with ruins, among which the boundary marks of the fields and gardens, and the plans of many houses, may still be distinctly traced.†

The ruins of the town lie on the promontory between the Quarantine and Streletska bays, and its limits are marked by the remains of a wall which was carried from the head of Quarantine Bay across the isthmus to the Bay of Soses, now called Streletska Bay, where the French landed. It was nearly 2 m. in length, and built of limestone 5 or 6 ft. thick. There were 3 towers, of which the largest was placed on the top of the isthmus, and defended the principal gate, a massive edifice, vaulted, with a guard-house belonging to it. Part of this was still standing up to the time of the occupation of the site by the French. An inscription was found in the ruins, which declared the tower to have been restored about the year 491 A.D. Before entering within the classic enclosure of Khersonesus, the following brief history of its rise, progress, and fall should be perused:—

* They first settled themselves on the promontory near Kamish Bay, which is covered with the ruins of the first Khersonesus.

† Most of these interesting particulars have been extracted from Mr. H. D. Seymour's work 'Russia on the Black Sea,' which the traveller wishing to study the Crimea should not fail to read.

Stimulated by the success of the Milesians, who had established themselves on the small peninsula of Kertch, the Heracleans endeavoured on their side to found some colonies in the Crimea. They turned to the western part of the Tauric peninsula, and disembarked not far from the celebrated Cape Partheniké, and, having beaten and driven back into the mountains the savage Tauri, they fixed themselves in the Heracleotic Khersonese. Thus was founded the afterwards celebrated republic of Khersonesus or Kherson. The Khersonians and the Bosporians at Pantacapæum, or Kertch, were continually at war, until both were united under the sway of Mithridates the Great, King of Pontus, who, as we have already seen, was succeeded by a son who became a vassal of Rome. Khersonesus continued to be an important place during the greatness and decline of the Empire, down to the epoch when the dispersed Slavonic tribes were united into one nation under Norman princes in the 9th centy. From that time Khersonesus, situated about half way between Kief and Byzantium, was constantly a subject of dispute between the Russians and Greeks.

At length, in 988 A.D., it underwent a famous siege by Vladimir, Prince or Grand Duke of Kief. "The inhabitants," says Nestor, "shut themselves up in the walls of the town, and Vladimir established his camp on each side, near the harbour, just within shot of the said town. The besieged defended themselves valiantly, yet, as Vladimir always pressed on the siege, they began to lose courage, and he said to them 'If you do not surrender, I swear that I will remain here three years.' To this threat the besieged paid no attention, and Vladimir made his soldiers take up their arms, and ordered the assault, but, while they were engaged in it, the Khersonians, having made a way into the ditches, took out the earth which the besiegers had thrown into them to fill them up, and brought it into the town, and the more the Russians threw into the ditches, the more the besieged took

out of them. But while Vladimir was besieging Kherson, and constraining its inhabitants, a certain Athanasius shot into the enemy's camp an arrow bearing this advice, 'Thou canst stop or turn aside the springs which are behind thee, towards the east: it is thence that the waters of the town are brought to us.' At this news, Vladimir lifted his eyes to heaven, and cried out, 'If this be true, I promise to receive baptism.' And forthwith he gave the order to stop the pipes and turn off the water. Soon the besieged, worn out and dying of thirst, surrendered, and Vladimir with his people made his entry into the town. Vladimir then asked the Emperors Basil and Constantine for their sister Anna in marriage, and she was granted him on condition of his baptism, and was received into the port by the Khersonians, who conducted her to the palace.

"The baptism of Vladimir took place in the church of the Holy Mother of God at Kherson, situated in the midst of the town on the market-place. It is here near the ch., by the side of the altar, that is to be seen to this day the palace of Vladimir, and that of the princess. Immediately after the baptism the bishop conducted the princess for another ceremony, that of marriage. Vladimir ordered to be built a church in Kherson, on the hill made with the earth which the inhabitants had piled up in the centre of the town during the siege, which church may still be seen in our days."

On his return to Kief, Vladimir determined that all his people should become Christians, and their conversion accordingly took place, as related in the Historical Notice. Nestor relates that the prince brought with him to Kief some priests of Khersonesus the relics of St. Clement, and his disciple Phira, and vases and instruments for burning incense. He also says that the prince carried away with him two images of brass and four horses in metal, which in his time stood behind the ch. of the Holy Mother of God in Kief, and were thought by the ignorant to be of marble. There is no mention, however, of the two gates of Corinthian brass, which he is likewise said to have carried from Khersonesus. There is a door in the cathedral of St. Sophia at Novgorod, which is called by the Russians "the door (or gates) of Korsun," but the Latin and Slavonic inscriptions on it disprove their being of Greek origin. (*Vide* Novgorod.)

The Slavonians, to whom ancient Khersonesus now became subjected, were followed by the Huns and Khazars, and other wild races, who swept away most of the Greek colonies of the Crimea, but the final destruction of Khersonesus as a city in the 14th centy. is attributed to Olgerd, nephew of Gudemin, the Lithuanian, conqueror of Kief and of all Southern Russia. After its pillage by the Lithuanians, it remained almost deserted; and when the Turks, in 1475, took possession of the Crimea, they only found in it empty houses and deserted churches, from which they removed the finest marbles for their buildings at Constantinople. At the end of the 16th centy. a traveller visited the city, which was then called Sari-Kerman, or the Yellow Castle, on account of the yellow colour of the ground, and asserts that it had then been uninhabited for many centuries. The ruins, however, of what he calls this "proud, delicate, and illustrious city," were then wonderful. The wall and its towers, built of enormous blocks of hewn stone, were perfect, and a beautiful aqueduct still brought the purest water. The palace of the kings, itself as large as a city, with magnificent entrance gates, continued to exist. The churches were despoiled because of their valuable marbles, and the largest Greek monastery alone remained entire. What the Turks and the Tartars had, however, spared, was taken by the Russians when they built Sevastopol. Sailors were sent to collect materials, and no ancient remains were respected. The walls and fine gateways which still existed were pulled down to build the Quarantine, and when the Emperor Alexander I. issued orders to stop this vandalism

the ruin of everything precious had been consummated.

It is true that the Russian government had previously commissioned an officer to excavate whatever seemed of interest in the ruins, and he began by the churches, three of which he uncovered, but the last remains of works of art which were then collected by Lieut. Kruse, with persevering industry, disappeared after a detachment of soldiers had been lodged in the ruins for a few years at the time of the plague.

After this historical prelude, necessarily short, the traveller may be ushered in among the ruins. The centre of attraction will be the ch. which is being built over the ruins of the ancient cathedral of Khersonesus, erected by the piety of Vladimir, in memory of his taking the city, and of his own conversion to Christianity. It may have been originally the site of the Church of the Holy Mother of God, in which the prince was baptized and married. When the cathedral was discovered, the remains of a semicircular apse were visible, and columns of a fine white crystalline marble, striped with blue, showed in the nave of the edifice the positions of the transepts and the dome. Great Byzantine crosses ornamented the capitals of the columns and many parts of the interior. The whole exterior wall remained to about the height of 3 or 4 ft., and within its precincts Lieut. Kruse collected all the columns and other remains that were found, the greater part of which were drawn out of the crypt.

The ruins were unfortunately injured by the French, who later placed a guard on them; but what remained of the ancient edifice has been covered in by the new wall. The marble slab on the altar of the new ch. belonged to the original edifice. To the l., on descending into the town, and close to this ch., was the market-place, easily recognised by the heap of earth in the shape of a great tumulus, and with which an interesting story of ancient days is connected. In the year 334 or 336 A.D., Assander, the last King of the Bosporus, asked in marriage for one of his sons the daughter of Lamachus, the Stephanóphorus or chief magistrate of Khersonesus, the most powerful man in the town, famous for his riches in gold, silver, slaves, serving-women, horses, and lands. He also possessed a house with four courts, occupying all one quarter of the town, lying near the exterior part of the Bay of Soses (now Streletska Bay), where he had a private door pierced in the walls of the town, which is the only one that now remains entire. Four magnificent gateways guarded the approaches to his house, and each herd of oxen and cows, horses and mares, sheep and asses, returning from pasture, had its own particular entrance and stables.

Glycia, the daughter of Lamachus, married the eldest son of Assander, under the express condition that he should never return to Panticapæum, to visit his father, not even at the hour of his death. After two years Lamachus died, and Glycia, the following year, wished, according to the general custom, on the anniversary of her father's death, to give a grand feast to all the people of Khersonesus, her riches being sufficient to provide them all with wine, bread, oil, meat, poultry, and fish; and she promised to renew this festival each year. Her husband, deeply vexed at such prodigality, pretended to praise her filial affection, but secretly determined to revenge himself by seizing this occasion to hatch a plot against the town, the citizens of which had inflicted many injuries on his ancestors, the kings of Bosporus. He wrote to his father to send him, from time to time, a dozen young Bosporians, strong and active, who were secretly introduced into the vast palace of Lamachus, by the little door near the Bay of Soses, and waited in concealment for the next anniversary, in order to seize the town, and massacre the people, overcome by wine and good cheer.

A lucky accident caused the treachery to be discovered. On the eve of the feast, one of the servants of Glycia, having disobeyed her mis-

tress, was shut up in a distant chamber, which happened to be just above that in which the Bosporians were concealed. The loss of her spindle, which rolled into a hole near the wall, induced the girl to lift up a square of the floor in search of it. She then saw the Bosporians assembled, and hastened to inform her mistress. Glycia then sent for 3 delegates from the town, and, having made them swear that, in recompense for her patriotism, they would, contrary to established custom, bury her inside the town, she communicated to them the astounding news, and gave them directions how to act. She made them celebrate the festival gaily, as if nothing was to happen, and only bid each man prepare some faggots and torches. Then, having drugged her husband's wine, and escaped from the house with her maids carrying her trinkets and gold, she ordered the faggots to be piled round the house, and fired, and thus made all the traitors perish in the flames. The citizens of Khersonesus wished to rebuild the house of Glycia at the public expense, but this she strongly opposed, and, on the contrary, caused them to heap up every kind of filth and refuse on the place stained by treachery, which was ever after called "the Den of Lamachus."

This monument, more indestructible than brass or marble, is still there, and, without knowing the story of Glycia, the stranger is astonished to find the rubbish of all the towns piled on the top of the plain which borders Streletska Bay, in one of the finest situations of Khersonesus. On passing through the little door, which is near the landing-place outside the walls, the remains of a mole are still to be seen below the level of the water.

Two statues of brass were raised on the public place in honour of Glycia, in one of which she was represented modestly and carefully attired, receiving the 3 deputies of the town, and in the other she was clothed in warrior garments, in the act of avenging the betrayed citizens. At the time when Constantine Porphyrogenitas, Emperor of Constantinople (A.D. 911-959), wrote the account from which this has been extracted by Mr. H. D. Seymour ('Russia in the Black Sea,' p. 155), every citizen considered it his duty to keep clean and bright the inscription which the gratitude of the city had caused to be engraven upon her monument.

The remains of a large palace stand on one side of the small street leading to the market-place, which is doubtless one of those which Nestor mentions as being near the Ch. of the Virgin. Among the ruins the traveller will see crosses of wood recently erected. These mark the sites of the other ancient churches that have been discovered.

One of these, found by Lieut. Kruse, must have been larger than the cathedral, and built in the form of a Greek cross, 53 ft. each way. The semicircular seats for the clergy were found entire in the apse, and a coarse mosaic still existed as a pavement.

This edifice was remarkable, because it was evidently a beautiful Greek temple metamorphosed into a Christian church and bases and capitals of Ionic columns, and other parts of Greek architecture, were built into its walls. Perhaps this had been the Parthenon of Khersonesus, dedicated to the famous Virgin divinity of the ancient Tauri.

The positions of a great number of streets can be traced, tortuous and narrow, like those of Eastern towns to this day, and, as the whole of the peninsula above described was built over, we may suppose, continues Mr. H. D. Seymour, that there existed here 5000 houses, and 40,000 or 50,000 inhabitants.

The high plain was bordered with houses, from which steps were cut into the rock down to the water's edge, and half way between the two bays, where the rock naturally slopes down, were a landing-place and a market; and there remain a perfect well and an aqueduct. There were only 2 springs of water in the Khersonese, both near Balaclava. Some of the pipes through which the water from one of these springs was conducted

into the city have been excavated, and it was this conduit that Vladimir cut when he took the town of Khersonesus. The water of the principal spring was carried in modern times to Sevastopol, which for a long time was only supplied by some wells and small sources at the extremity of the S. bay.

Near the modern church of Khersonesus are a small monastery, dedicated to St. Vladimir, and a church of recent date. The superior lives in the large house with a green roof.

Within a short distance of the monastery is the French Cemetery. It will be remembered that the French collected the remains of all their slain and deposited them here. Not far from the cemetery, rising cheerfully from the plain, is Bracker's House, the head-quarters of the British army, and in which Lord Raglan died. Close to this house are the remains of a square Greek tower.

The traveller will now reach the sea-coast and Cape Partheniké (Violenté, or St. George), so called after the monastery of the same name which is upon it, and which was the head-quarters of the French army during the siege of Sevastopol. The spot is interesting for several other reasons, and we will allow Mr. H. D. Seymour to describe it in his own words:—

"The cape derived its ancient name from the cruel Virgin divinity of the Tauri, so famous in early history, to whom all strangers were sacrificed who suffered shipwreck on this inhospitable coast. When the Greeks arrived from Heraclea, they brought in the worship of Hercules and Diana, and, as they always respected the religion of the countries they visited, and found a great resemblance between their own Diana and the Virgin of the Tauri, they probably merged the two into one under the name of the Tauric Diana, discontinuing the ancient barbarous custom of offering human victims. At a later period Iphigenia was confounded with the two other divinities, as Herodotus expressly says that in his time she was worshipped as a goddess. The Tauric goddess had her Parthenon in Kherson, and her chapel on Cape Partheniké. The road is still visible by which the worshippers passed from Kherson to the promontory, crossing a ridge of rocks, on which the traces of the ancient chariot-wheels are distinctly visible.

"The cape is remarkable as being the exact limit between the most ancient and the most modern geological formations in the Crimea. Here, on the top of the precipice, an immense rock of jurassic limestone juts out from the coast, on a level with the steppe, and bordered by sheer precipices on every side, except where it is connected with the mainland. In the centre are the foundations of an isolated edifice, almost square, constructed of hewn stones, like the donjons of the houses of the Khersonese. It was placed at the angle of the two walls, which, advancing one to the W. and the other to the S., on the edge of the precipice, formed of the rest of the platform a kind of court, of which the entrance-gate looked towards the Khersonese and the road. This could only have been a temple, for here are neither the wells nor buildings which always characterise a dwelling-house. This was also the fittest situation for the worship of the Tauric Virgin, for at this point only could the sea be reached on this side of the Khersonese, and close to it is a gorge in the form of an amphitheatre, where doubtless, in the earliest time, crowds assembled to witness the precipitation of the unhappy victims into the sea.

"Near it, ensconced in a ledge of the precipice, is the famous monastery of St. George. From the plateau above, which has all the aridity and monotony of the steppes, its ancient walls are not visible, and it is not till the traveller approaches the edge of the cliffs, and looks over, that he sees, instead of a frightful wave-beaten precipice, a most charming little village, nestled in the rocks at about 50 ft. below him. There are a church, and houses, and terraces, cut one below the other, and ancient poplars and gardens irrigated by a fine rivulet of water. The spot looks like a little

oasis suspended, as if by enchantment, at several hundred feet above the sea, in the midst of an amphitheatre of black basaltic rocks, which rise majestically around, and form a striking contrast to the rich verdure in which the monastery is hidden. A door and staircase cut in the rock form the only entrance to this great hermitage, which was no doubt first created by the ancient Troglodytes, or dwellers underground, whose remains are so numerous in the Crimea, as all the rocks near the monastery, which are composed of chalk, are pierced by ancient grottoes, which are now only used as cellars and poultry-yards, although they were inhabited by the monks so lately as the time of Pallas in 1794. The monastery consists of many large buildings, several of which are devoted to the reception of strangers. The church has unfortunately been rebuilt, and the ancient chapel that stood here has been totally destroyed. A stone basin is shaded by poplars, while below it are terraced gardens and small vineyards.

"This little nook generally enjoys a most unbroken quiet, but on the 23rd April, St. George's Day, when crowds arrive, and the plateau above is covered with huts and tents, the Greeks from all parts of the Crimea flock to the place, and the women especially frequent the fête, and embellish the scene by their picturesque dresses and traditional beauty. As in most religious festivals, the world always claims its part, and a kind of fair is held here in the early part of the day, at which much business is done. But all at once the scene changes, the hour of Divine service has arrived, the crowd flocks to the church, and, as soon as the benediction has been given, there is a rush to the basin containing the water, which is supposed at this season to be the remedy against all kinds of diseases."

From St. George's Monastery the road to Balaclava turns to the N.E., over a dreary and barren plain, past the village of Karany, with a ridge of mountains on the rt., and then through the vale of Balaclava, so famous, some little distance beyond, for the gallant charge of the Six Hundred.

Balaclava, 12 v. S.E. of Sevastopol, and about 7 v. from the Monastery of St. George. Pop. 500.

History, &c.—Balaclava is the only bay on the southern coast resembling the bays about Sevastopol, where the land rises suddenly on each side, and the water is so deep that the largest ships may anchor close to the shore. On approaching it from the E., the geological formation is seen at once to change in its vicinity; the summits of the rocks are still, like the rest of the Tauric chain, calcareous; but they have been changed by violent action into red, blue, and grey marbles, below which reappears the coarse red pudding-stone of the Tchatyr-Dagh mountain, while a great rent, which opens on the sea, and was called the Valley of the Devil (Shaitan Dereh), shows a black or yellowish schist.

Mr. H. D. Seymour, whom we are still quoting, makes the following extract from the work of M. Dubois:* —"Each step, in approaching Balaclava, is an enigma to me, such an inconceivable disorder reigns among these masses of pudding-stone, with enormous pebbles which alternate with layers of marble and sandstone; and the marble finishes this strange series, which seems like a world turned topsyturvy. When arrived at the top of the sterile mountain that overhangs Balaclava, I cry out with astonishment, What are these white antique towers perched on the top of rocks descending so rapidly to the water? What is this brilliant lake shut in by the steep mountains? and that red promontory reflected in the waves of the sea? Can this be Balaclava? Nothing but ruins are visible,—where then is the town? Contemplating with admiration this romantic scene, I descended the mountain, looking continually for the town, of which I saw no vestige. My guide at

* 'Voyage autour du Caucase,' par F. Dubois de Montpereux, 6 vols., Paris, 1839.

last directed me suddenly to the left, and like magic I found myself in Balaclava, which, placed on the narrow strip of land between the mountains with the ruins and the tranquil bay, is not seen until it is entered."

The first notice of Balaclava is in the dim twilight of archaic times. It is supposed on good authority (that of C. Ritter) to be the port of the Lœstrigones, mentioned in the 'Odyssey,' to which the reader must be referred for Homer's description of the landing of Ulysses, whose heralds were received by the younger daughter of Antiphates, the king of the Lœstrigones, and shown the lofty gates of a palace which touched the heavens. The savage Antiphates, faithful to the character which the ancients always attributed to the Tauri, seized one of the ambassadors to devour him, while the other two fled away. Meanwhile the alarm had been given in the town; the people had seen the fleet of Ulysses enter, and they rushed to it from all parts. Strabo calls the port Palakion, from the name of a strong Greek castle which stood there. The most probable presumption is that Balaclava was founded by the Tauric Scythians about the 2nd centy. before Christ, and that it was the port in which the Scythian sea-robbers congregated. Later it was occupied by the Greek colonists, who called it Cymbolon, a name which was corrupted to Cembalo by the Genoese, who took it in 1365, and then built the fortress which now exists. In 1433 the Greeks who had remained at Cembalo, having conspired, drove out the Genoese and replaced the town and castle in the hands of a noble Greek called Alexis, the lord of Theodori (Inkerman). He was driven out in the following year by Charles Somellin, who was sent from Genoa with a fleet of 20 vessels, further augmented in passing through the Greek islands, so that he arrived with 6000 men.

In 1475 Balaclava was taken by the Turks, who gave it up uninjured to the Tartars, by whom it was held for several centuries, till they were driven out by its present inhabitants, the Arnaout Greeks, in 1780. These were embodied into a regiment in 1795 for the ostensible purpose of guarding the coast, but in reality for that of expelling the Tartars, whom Catherine found somewhat powerful and refractory when she took the Crimea. The "Greek battalion" was only disbanded in 1859.

The village of Balaclava, for it can scarcely be called a town, presents a very different appearance from what it did before the war. There are only a few small houses remaining; but the tranquil beauty of the bay (which proved so treacherous to our transports on the 14th November, 1854), and the ruins of the fortifications, on which the arms of Genoa were still visible at the beginning of the present centy., will well repay the traveller for the fatigue he has endured during this long drive. He will be forcibly reminded of some of the events of the Crimean war by the inscriptions on the rocks—"Cossack Bay," "Castle Bay," "Castle Point," &c., painted in bold characters during the English occupation.

3.—*Sevastopol to Bakhchisárai, passing through the Valley of Inkerman.*

The traveller may either perform this journey on horseback, or in a post-cart, providing himself first with a *podorojna*, or order for post-horses. The first plan necessitates the leaving of his luggage at Sevastopol, unless arrangements can be made for its being safely forwarded. These are details which must be left to circumstances, and to the discretion of the traveller. It is, however, necessary to premise that the road which he is about to take is the worst in the whole peninsula.

The road from Sevastopol to Inkerman is only about 4 m. in length, but very fatiguing. In order to avoid the numberless ravines which cut up the Khersonese, a circuitous route must be taken, and it is hardly possible to cross in a straight line. Scarcely has the descent been made to the bottom of one

ravine, by a very steep declivity, than an equally precipitous ascent must be made at the other side; and the route has nothing picturesque, except some poor ruins scattered here and there among the rocks.

The Valley of Inkerman, through which flows the river Tchernaya, begins about 4 m. from Sevastopol, and is formed by 2 limestone chains, full of fossils, of which one runs along the northern, and the other along the S. shore of the bay of Sevastopol. Approaching each other at about a mile above the mouth of the Tchernaya, they form a valley, rich in pastures. On the rt. bank of the river the chain terminates in two perpendicular cliffs, of which the right is pierced by a great number of caverns or crypts of every variety and size, arranged in irregular tiers of nearly half a mile in length. They are supposed to be the work of the ancient Tauri. On the summit of the other cliff are the ruins of the castle of Eupatorion (later called Theodori), built by Diophantes, the general of Mithridates, who was sent to help the Khersonians against the Tauro-Scythians a little before the birth of Christ. From this castle Diophantes made a communication with the other side, by filling up the valley with earth, and leaving a passage for the river by a bridge with 3 arches, of which one remained in 1834, and the bank itself is perfectly preserved. The name of Inkerman is derived from them, its meaning in the Tartar language being "a town of caverns."

In 1578 Greek inscriptions and heraldic bearings of the Greek princes of Theodori were still to be seen over the gates.

On the southern side of the same rock is an ancient cavern-church, with its columns, choir, and sarcophagi complete. The more complicated crypts on the S. side of the rock have many rooms, and all, except the principal chamber, have ledges of stone which were once used as beds. The doors were of wood; the ceilings rise to a point; and in the centre of the floor there was a hole 1½ ft. deep, and 2 ft. across, which was the fireplace and the oven. In some places, from natural causes, the rock has given way, and carried down whole stages of crypts, with the passages and staircases of communication between the various stories, and Lieut. Kruse, whose labours in connexion with Khersonesus have been mentioned, blew up vast numbers of the crypts for the purpose of supplying stone, under a contract for the public buildings of Sevastopol. On the opposite side of the valley, on the left bank of the river, the hill-side is likewise full of crypts.

In the vicinity of the mountains, partly covered with brushwood, and partly laid bare, are quarries of serpentine and marble, which were worked during the construction of ancient Khersonesus. The Romans sent their convicts to work in these quarries. Amongst the number was Pope Clement I., who was afterwards put to death, A.D. 102, for converting his fellow prisoners to Christianity. A ch., which at a later period was built in the rock, and dedicated to St. Clement, still exists. Here also are some wells dug by the Greek princes. One of them, situated about 50 fathoms above the valley, in the centre of the old fortress, is very remarkable. The aqueduct, 12 m. in length, which runs along the valley, and pierces the rock for a distance of about 150 fms., was built in 1832-33, for the purpose of supplying the docks of Sevastopol with fresh water. In the direction of Tchorguna and Mangup is a layer of fuller's earth, 2 ft. in thickness and grey in colour, accompanied below by talc. It is used as soap, and is even exported to Constantinople. The famous heights of Inkerman are on the l. bank of the Tchernaya, near its mouth. For description of the battle *vide* Historical Notice.

Passing through the valley of Inkerman, the road—a very bad one—first ascends and then descends again into the valley of the Belbek, which, after a N.W. course of 50 v., falls into

the Black Sea N. of the bay of Sevastopol. Here the first stat., 24 v. from Sevastopol, is reached. It is the Tartar village of Duvankoi (Pop. 1100), prettily situated on the rt. bank of the Belbek. Thence the road crosses the plain and the river Katcha to Bakhchisarai, a distance of 15 versts.

BAKHCHISARAI, on river Chiriuk-su, 30 v. from Simpheropol. Pop. 13,000.

Accommodation.—Travellers provided with a *podorojna* are entitled to a lodging in the *Palace of the Khans*, where, however, he will only find a divan to lie upon. Everything in the way of food he must provide for himself, either by bringing it with him, or by obtaining it at a Tartar eating-house. The old soldier who acts as porter will supply water and towels.

Guides, &c.—The *Cicerones* are all Russians, but the Englishman will generally be fortunate enough to meet with some Russian inhabitant of the place able to speak French or German. It will be best, however, to obtain at Sevastopol or elsewhere a letter of introduction to the commandant, who resides in the palace, and also, like all Russians, says an experienced traveller, will be delighted to afford any assistance to the stranger.

Horses.—There is no lack of these for hire. Avoid a Tartar saddle, for English ones are to be obtained.

History, &c.—The date of the foundation of Bakhchisarai is unknown, but it became the residence of the khans of the Crimea in the latter part of the 15th centy. The town is situated in a deep gorge of the chalk formation, 3 m. in length. It is full of interesting monuments of the Tartars, foremost amongst which is the Khan-Sarai, or Palace of the Khans, which was restored by Potemkin, and furnished in the original style for the reception of the Empress Catherine.

The greater part of the town was destroyed by the Russian troops in 1736, and only a portion of it has been rebuilt. Many of its ornaments suffered during the Crimean war by its appropriation to the purposes of an hospital. Right and left on entering are ranges of apartments, which all open on a long gallery, whence there is a good view of the interior court, and of the groups of fantastic buildings raised irregularly above it. At the entrance of the second court on the left is the "Iron Gate," leading to the principal apartments, on which is an inscription declaring it to have been built by Menghli Ghirey Khan, who conquered the Crimea in 1480. A staircase leads into the richly ornamented hall, in which there are 2 fountains, one of which is called Selsibil, after the name of a river in Mahomet's paradise, and which has been rendered famous by the verses of the Russian poet Pushkin. The inscription on the fountain states that it was erected in 1756, by Khan Krim Ghirei, in honour of Diliarah Bikéh, a Georgian, buried near the palace. Beyond this hall is that of the Divan, the great council-room, placed in the midst of a delicious terraced garden. The Hall of Audience, and a long suite of rooms leading down to the bank of the river, lead out of the hall with the fountains. Behind the Pavilion of the Waters, carefully hidden by high trees, is a little secluded court, where the sacred precincts of the harem terminated with a high tower, called the Sokolinaya, or "Hawk Tower," whence the ladies used to witness the reception of ambassadors, and the fêtes and martial games that were celebrated in the great court, and whence also there is a most charming view of the town and all the surrounding country. The mosque, with 2 tall minarets of fine workmanship, is on the l. of the palace. Adjoining it is the cemetery, with 2 large domes, containing the monuments of nearly all the khans since 1654.

The oldest tombs are, however, to be found in the suburb of Salachik, where there is also a large mosque, built by Menghi Ghirey, and the tomb of Aldurakhman, Ulemá of the Crimea, erected by the conqueror of the peninsula. One graceful dome,

placed just without the precincts of the palace garden, immediately attracts attention. It contains the tomb of a beautiful Georgian, called Diliarah Bikéh, the wife of Krim Ghirey. She steadily refused to change her religion, and reposes here on suffrance, at the edge of the Mussulman cemetery. Many a pilgrimage is made to this tomb, as to that of Marie Potocka, another beautiful Christian, who gained the heart of one of the last khans of the Crimea, who carried her off, but who never succeeded in reconciling her to being the wife of an infidel.

The principal mosque at Bakhchisarai, the Djuma-Djami, was erected by Seliamit Ghirey Khan (1737-43).

The principal excursion from Bakhchisarai is to *Tepé Kermen* (6 v.), a lofty hill, the sides of which, like the gorges of Inkerman, are honeycombed out into caves, once the dwellings of man. It is difficult to determine the origin of these excavations; they were perhaps the abodes of the Troglodites in the prehistoric ages; but one thing is certain, that they were at one time the refuge of Christians, probably the Arians fleeing from the persecution under Justinian. The remains of an excavated chapel are still to be seen, with an altar and a cross carved in high relief, a cross which antiquaries have hitherto been unable to assign to any known Christian sect, since it differs from all ordinary forms. There are also one or two niches for coffins. Lower down the hills are two large holes filled with human bones, but among which no skulls have been discovered. The summit of this hill is crowned by the ruins of a Genoese fortification, and a fine view of the country may be obtained thence.

Returning by another path, the *large cemetery of the Karaim Jews* is passed, shaded by lofty trees, and surrounded by a wall. It is the favourite burial-place of this sect, and is beautifully kept. Close by is their city of *Tchufut Kalé*, perched on the summit of lofty and craggy cliffs only accessible from one side, and of which the history is as follows:—The Karaim Jews call it Kyrkor, or "40 men," and affirm that it was built by 40 brothers. It was known in the middle ages (and to Eastern writers in the 14th centy.) as the town of "Forty Places" or "Forty Castles." The monuments in the cemetery of Tchufut Kalé, called the Valley of Jehoshaphat, prove that the town existed in the 6th centy. of the Christian era, and that in the 8th centy. it was the residence of Isaac Sangari, who converted the Kahzars to Judaism. The Karaim Jews are of opinion that Tchufut Kalé was founded about 400 years before Christ; also that it was the refuge of the last of the Khazars in the 11th centy. The Khans of Kipchak and of the Golden Horde resided for some time here, as proved by the ruins of mosques, and by the Mausoleum of Nenké-Djan-Khanym, the daughter of Tokhtamysh, successor of Tamerlane, who threw herself down a precipice and was killed in 1437, because her father would not consent to her marriage with a handsome Genoese nobleman, or, according to some, with a Tartar Mirza.

It is now nearly deserted, but its synagogue is still used. This and the Council Chamber, and the tomb of a Tartar princess, are the lions which are shown to strangers; but there is nothing remarkable in them, and the time will be more profitably spent in rambling about the ruined houses and strong walls of this strangely situated city, and in inspecting the subterranean town which has been cut under the fortress. The descent on the other side is by a winding series of broad stairs amid the dwellings which here, as everywhere in the Crimea, have been hollowed out in the rocks.

The *Monastery of the Assumption* is passed on the way back. It is built on the site of the ancient Mariampol, the inhabitants of which town emigrated to Mariùpol, on the Sea of Azof. The monastery, or rather a portion of it, is placed high up amid the cliffs, and some of the chapels are excavated in the rock. Here the traveller will be able to judge how the old crypt towns looked before they

were deserted. Many white crosses mark the tombs of rich Greeks, whose bodies have been brought from various parts to be buried in this sacred ground.

The hire of a horse for this excursion ought not to be more than a ruble and a half, and the gratuity to the guide 30 kopeks.

From Bakhtchisarai the traveller should make an excursion to the rock of *Mangup*, which will be seen rising to a height of upwards of a thousand feet E. of the town. Every accessible place in the vicinity is fortified with walls and towers. One valley, called the Tabana Déréh, is fortified by a wall and 4 towers, and contains several stages of crypts and a fine spring of water. On the top of the plateau are the remains of a Byzantine Greek ch., to the left of which is a mosque and a Turkish cemetery. In the Acropolis are the remains of a fine palace. It was in this house that the Khans several times shut up the Moscovite ambassadors, and made them suffer a severe captivity. It is a memento of the Gothic Dukes of Mangup, and perhaps, as a solitary memorial of the architecture of the Goths in the Crimea, possesses considerable interest.

Rising majestically from the glen at its base, the town of MANGUP belonged at different periods to the Greeks, the Genoese, and the Karaim Jews, a tribe peculiar to the Crimea, who follow the law of Moses, reject the traditions of the elders, adopt many of the habits of the Mahommedan, and are a remarkably fine race of men. A guide to the ruins and excavations at the summit of this mountain will be necessary, for the ascent is steep and difficult; halfway up the road runs through a cemetery of these Karaim Jews, containing many thousand tombstones, of coffin-shape, covered with Hebrew inscriptions. Beyond this is the outer wall of the fortress, flanked by square castellated towers at short distances from each other. Within this, and further up the hill, a projection of the table-land, precipitous on all sides but one—this was the citadel. The excavations here are very singular, and the view from the windows of the chambers in the rocks down the ravines is of the wildest character. From the opposite side of the mountain, Sevastopol, with its harbour, shipping, &c., may be distinctly seen, and towards Bakhtchisarai the eye ranges over a broken chain of mountains, each in itself a natural and impregnable fortress. Of the vast population that once inhabited Mangup, not one human being now remains: ivy has embraced its walls and towers, rank herbs and old trees have choked the vine, and the lizard and the eft now disport themselves over the ruins of the synagogues.

The name, sometimes pronounced Mangut, would seem to suggest that the Goths, when fleeing before the victorious Huns, established themselves there, and built those massive walls of which such stupendous fragments still remain. A chapel excavated in the rock, with a cross similar to that at Tépé Kermen, is still visible, though the painted saints upon the walls, which Pallas mentions, have disappeared.

There is little to interest the traveller to the north of Bakhtchisarai, but, says Mr. H. D. Seymour, let him go east, south, and west of Mangup, and he may make endless excursions in a most lovely country. He may wander up the valleys of the Belbek, the Katcha, and the Alma, and cross the mountainous country which divides their channels; and whether he be geologist, archæologist, or only an admirer of the beauties of nature, he will find his tastes amply gratified, and every simple want supplied, among the primitive and hospitable Tartars.

4.—*Bakhtchisarai to Simpheropol, crossing the Valley of the Alma.*

Although the traveller is recommended to visit Simpheropol from Alushta, yet, as he may be tempted to extend his journey from Bakhtchi-

sarai, the route to Simpheropol is here given.

A tolerably good road leads from Bakhtchisarai to Simpheropol. The distance is 30 v. (20 miles) along a waste steppe, with the exception of a mile and a half of the distance, during which it passes through the pretty valley of the Upper Alma, about midway to Simpheropol. An excursion may very well be made on horseback from Bakhtchisarai, for the purpose of seeing the celebrated battle-field.

The *Alma* (which means "Apple" in the Tartar language) rises in the Sinabdagh, S. of the Chatyrdagh, and runs a course of 46 to 50 miles, first S.W., then due W. Its valley is remarkable for its fertility, and particularly for its fine orchards of apples, whence also its name of "Alma." Villages and ancient remains mark the whole of its course. Of the latter the most remarkable will be found near the village of Bazarchik, 10 v. N. of Bakhtchisarai, where, at a place called Hanèl, is a fine ruin of a khan's palace. But in order to reach the field of Alma, the traveller will make for a point lower down the river, which he will reach by taking a road that leads N.N.W. out of Bakhtchisarai, through the village of Idighiel. Keeping along the same road for a distance of 12 to 15 v., he will reach the banks of the Alma at about 10 v. from its mouth, and, proceeding down the valley, will arrive at the ground on which the Allies met with their first success. (For a description of the battle, *vide* Historical Notice.)

Simpheropol. — For description of town, *vide*, 8, Alushta to Simpheropol.

5.—*Sevastopol to Alupka, through the Valley of Baidar.*

The journey from Sevastopol to Alupka may be easily made in one day. The first stage is Balaclava, 12 versts. Here an attempt may be made to induce the traveller to take three horses, but two are amply sufficient unless the baggage is heavy. Soon after leaving Balaclava the track emerges on the high road, which is the best in all the Crimea. There is then a long descent, followed by a longer ascent, exceedingly well managed, winding round the hills amid beautiful forests; then another long descent, in some places very steep, to the beautiful valley and village of

Baidar, 22 v. from Balaclava, where begins the most beautiful part of the Crimea.

This valley is 12 m. (16 v.) in length from S.W. to N.E., and 5 to 7 m. in breadth. Numerous rivulets flow into it, and join the waters of the Tchernaya, the sources of which are on the slopes of the mountains of Ussundji, by which the valley is bounded on the E. The bottom of the valley is undulated and covered with wood, meadows, and pastures. Twelve Tartar villages, each surrounded with vineyards, and almost concealed in the luxuriant foliage of huge walnut-trees, oaks, and poplars, are ensconced in it. Of these the village at which the traveller will stop is the largest, as it has 195 Inhab., 2 mosques, and several houses of 2 stories. The rivulet which runs through it is likewise called Baidar, and it flows into the Tchernaya. The valley of Baidar has been described as the Tauric Arcadia, and travellers have bestowed almost extravagant praise upon it. Dr. Lyell says, "For myself, though I have visited the Caucasus and the fairy scenery of the well-known Trosachs in Scotland, I still regard the valley of Baidar as uncommonly fine, and worthy of most of the eulogiums bestowed upon it."

Dr. Lyell passed a night in the village of Baidar, and slept on a Tartar *divan* in the upper room of one of the cottages. Travellers provided with provisions should do the same, and pass a day in exploring the beautiful valley.

On leaving the village of Baidar the road ascends once more until the highest part of the mountain is reached

at the "Baidar Gate," or pass of Phoros, over which a good macadamized road was made by Prince Woronzoff in 1835, and where, passing under an archway, the traveller enjoys his first glimpse of the celebrated coast of the Crimea. The sea lies at his feet at the distance of a mile, and the high precipitous mountains which rise in an amphitheatre on his left hand recede a short distance from the coast, and leave a narrow margin of fertile country, with a climate like that of Greece and Italy. The glittering haze of the blue sea, the balmy air, the lofty mountains, with clear outline drawn against a cloudless sky, and softened by the delicate tints of a southern atmosphere, are natural phenomena of which no description can give an idea, but which once seen enrich the mind with a new stock of images.

The climate of the southern coast, which the traveller has now reached, is completely different from that of any other part of the Crimea. To the N. of the mountains, even as far as Balaclava and the valley of Baidar, there is always a severe winter, and the ground, as we too well know, is covered with snow. But when once the pass of Phoros is crossed the climate entirely changes. No snow ever falls on the sea region, and a perpetual spring reigns there. Not far from the pass, or Baidar Gate, is the "Devil's Staircase," which was formerly the only path to the S. coast without making a long *détour*.

Descending the pass by a series of deep zigzags with very sharp angles, the macadamized road leads to the l. towards the village of Kikineis.

Mr. H. D. Seymour recommends here a short *détour* to the right, for the purpose of visiting a secluded and beautiful little nook which was a favourite spot in early Greek times. This is the sheltered little valley and village of Laspi. The road to it from Phoros is a labyrinth of trees and verdure, yet the ground is covered with large masses of porphyry, large jets of which rise in some places to the height of 1000 ft. The valley, says Mr. Seymour, quoting Dubois, has been created by an igneous agency, which has detached Mount Ilia from the principal Tauric chain, to which it is united by a ridge of schist and sandstone about 600 ft. broad. On the top of this ridge arise at intervals about a dozen enormous aiguilles, 40 or 50 ft. high, which look as if, like Stonehenge, they belonged to some gigantic work of man.

The ancient village of Laspi stood on the side of the valley, high up on the connecting ridge, touching the aiguilles, and its inhabitants thus enjoyed a magnificent view over the valley and the sea, and far away along the coast on the other side of the bay, which is terminated by the promontory of Mount Asia. Just below the village are the ruins of a church of the early Christian times, surrounded by a cemetery in which are tombs in the shape of long sarcophagi, with a square tower at the head, entered by a small door, which is finished above in a triangle. Over this a cross is sculptured, and some attribute, as a pastoral staff, or a Tartar hatchet with two edges, a pickaxe, a spur, a plough, or a table, emblematic of the occupation of those who slept below. These tombs belonged to the Greeks, who inhabited many places in this part of the Crimea; but there are no inscriptions remaining here, except one of the late date 1772. Around the church of the cemetery are the ruins of houses and esplanades, with avenues of fruit-trees now become wild, among which one observer counted no fewer than five thousand plum-trees.

The village of Laspi, true to the ancient traditions of the Greeks, according to which they placed their temples on elevated sites, whence the majesty of the gods might be recognised from all parts, had on the summit of Mount Ilia a church which might be recognised from the vast plains of the sea around it, dedicated to St. Elias, and still a favourite place of pilgrimage. From the top of the ridge it is easily approached by a winding path across the mossy turf, on each side of whi

are the ruins of houses. The church, now a ruin, occupied the highest point of the mountain, and near it is a sacred cavern, vaulted with the stone of Inkerman, of which the church itself was built. A sculptured cross marks this as a Christian construction, and a warm damp air that escapes from it is the cause of the superstition attributing to it miraculous powers for the recovery of health. A sheer precipice is in front, and the view from it splendid.

Returning to the high road at Phoros, the traveller will pass over about 20 v. of a road comparatively uninteresting, since it is bounded on the side of the mountains by a regular precipice of Jurassic limestone, from 500 to 800 ft. high, which, having as an understratum a crumbling schist, is continually falling down in huge masses, which have sometimes buried whole villages, as for instance in 1786, at Kutchuk-Koi, 4 v. from Kikineis, which the traveller will now reach.

Kikineis, 22 v. from Baidar. This is a village of no great size, but pleasantly situated, amid walnut-trees, plum-trees, cherry-trees, and vines, and commands an extensive view. The Tartar mountaineers of Kikineis, as well as those of Limen and Simëis (which will be passed later), have a strange physiognomy, different from that of all the other inhabitants of Crim Tartary. Faces of uncommon length, as well as arched noses exceedingly long, and a high head, compressed with a view to render them unusually flat, all contribute to produce diversified caricatures, so that the greater part of these persons have distorted countenances, and the least deformed resemble the figures of satyrs. There was an ancient habit of the Genoese that may perhaps account for their peculiarities. They had adopted from their predecessors the Moors the habit of compressing the heads of the new-born infants above the temples, so that perhaps these villagers, with their singular faces, are the remaining descendants of the ancient Genoese, who inhabited the Crimea, and, notwithstanding the lapse of time, have preserved their extraordinary visages. It is further remarkable that the hair and beards of these mountaineers are almost uniformly light reddish, or even flaxen:—an unusual colour in the Crimea.

It is certain all the inhabitants who at present occupy the villages situated on the southern coast, though regarded as Tartars, are nevertheless the offspring of other nations who have either landed here, or have been driven thither from the interior, and who were strangers to the later race, but especially to that of the Mongols.

Changing horses at Kikineis, the traveller will post on through *Limèn* (3 m. from the latter station), which was one of the most important fortresses on the coast, placed on a high steep rock, only approachable by one path, and defended by a strong wall the construction of which the Tartars attributed to the Genoese. Traces of the fortress are still to be seen, in strange contrast with smiling country houses, surrounded by ancient olive-groves and splendid fig-trees. The traces of a violent volcanic action are apparent here. The whole space from the top of the mountains to the sea below is covered with stupendous blocks of stone, thrown pellmell one upon another, some even half-buried in the sea, whence only their tops are visible, beaten by the waves; one of the largest of these erratic blocks is called Panéa, and upon it are the ruins of an ancient castle. The agents of all these convulsions are to be seen in two jets of porphyry, which, piercing through the schist underlying the limestone, have struck against the stupendous walls of the limestone itself, which forms the flat table-land, or *yaila*, of the mountains above. In one place the *yaila* is broken, and through the limestone there appear forced up the schists and the porphyry, mixed together in a paste, which proves that they were in a liquid state when the jets arose.

About 3 m. beyond Limèn is another charming spot called *Simëis*. The formidable aspect of the craggy and

peaked rocks on the N., the unbounded tranquil dark-blue sea on the S., with the smiling valley of Siméis between them, covered with very luxuriant foliage, form one of the most interesting scenes which it is possible to conceive. Castelnau, a French traveller, exclaims, "Suisse, si fertile en charmans paysages, on vous oublie en voyant le vallon de Seméus."

A winding road of about 2 miles, through the most charming scenery, will bring the traveller to the end of this journey, which is

ALUPKA, a village of about 4000 Inhab.

Hotel kept by a Frenchman; very comfortably furnished.

This is the celebrated seat of Prince Woronzoff, whose villa, (or rather palace, for it contains upwards of 200 rooms,) is built on a romantic spot, where the rocks approach very near to the sea. It stands, however, at the height of about 155 ft. above the sea, and the gardens descend to the shore. The promontory of Aithidor is seen on the E. jutting out into the sea, and giving a curve to the coast, which adds greatly to its beauty; while immediately behind the palace rises Mount Ai Petri or Mount St. Peter, to a height of 3900 ft.

Built under the personal superintendence of Mr. Hunt, an English architect, after designs by Mr. Blore, the architecture of this residence is a skilful mixture of the Elizabethan with the Moorish. The material, a greenish porphyry, was taken from the crater of an extinct volcano at the back of the house: the turrets, tracery, mullions, coigns, and other ornamental parts of the building, are all of the same stone, which is exceedingly hard and difficult to work. The dining-room is of splendid dimensions, and lighted by 2 immense windows overlooking the sea; the groined ceiling is of oak, and the wall opposite the windows is ornamented with 2 fountains of elegant form in a dove-coloured marble, with dark red veins, peculiar to the Crimea. These fountains play at all times, being fed by a crystal rill from the mountains. Among the art treasures and curiosities of the palace are original portraits of Lucrezia Borgia and her husband. The terrace in front of the château is ornamented with orange-trees and other choice plants; the gardens are well laid out, but small, in consequence of the plateau of land on which the house stands being circumscribed by the sudden rise of the mountains at the back and the precipitous fall of the ground towards the sea in front. Among the trees are 2 remarkable cypresses, said to have been planted by Prince Potemkin, when Catherine visited the Crimea in 1787. The ornamental water is full of trout, and the vineyard contains 140,000 plants of the best species.

In addition to the beauty of the landscape and the splendour of Prince Woronzoff's palace, Alupka boasts of some ancient ruins on a rock detached from the main ridge and marked by a tall white cross.

The traveller may well halt here for a day or two, and ramble about in the lovely neighbourhood. By no means the least of the many attractions here are a French cuisine, combined with English comforts, and Prince Woronzoff's delicious Crimean wine, Massandra and Ai-Danil, supplied at the moderate rate of 40 copecks, while the Cornishman may even revel in pilchards, which, in the days of Pallas, were taken with the hand between the stones on the coast during the night, by the aid of torches made of resinous wood.

In rambling about the rocks the visitor to Alupka should beware of scorpions, which in the vernal season, says Pallas, may be found of different sizes, and beneath almost every stone in old walls.

6.—*Alupka to Yalta, through Livadia.*

The entire distance from Alupka to Yalta is only 16 v. or 12 English m., and the road is full of interest, being through a succession of beautiful estates. One of the seats nearest to

Alupka is *Mislkhor*, built by General Leo Narishkin, a celebrated Russian beau of the early part of this centy., who followed the prevailing fashion of having a villa on the S. coast, and a vineyard of 600 acres which produces a wine something like hock. Adjoining it is the estate of *Kureis*, interesting as having belonged to a Princess Galitzin, one of a celebrated trio of ladies who, under the reign of the impressionable Emperor Alexander, first exercised a great influence at court, and then, turning from the world to heaven, endeavoured to form a religious society for the immediate conversion of the whole world to Christ—a conversion which they thought had been too long delayed. The poor surrounded their doors in crowds at St. Petersburg, for they were very charitable of alms for the body as well as the soul, and their influence rose so rapidly, that the ministers induced the Emperor to sign the order for their banishment to the Crimea, a sentence which they accepted with joy as a mission from heaven to evangelize the Tartars.

The other 2 ladies were the celebrated Madame de Krudener and a mysteriqus personage who went under the name of the Countess Gaucher, but who, after her death, proved to have been the famous Countess de la Motte, who was publicly whipped and branded on the Place de la Grève as an accomplice in the scandalous affair of the diamond necklace of Marie Antoinette. Both she and the Princess Galitzin adopted a kind of male attire, suited to their independent mode of life.

At each moment from this spot the coast widens, and leaves a greater space between the overhanging mountains and the sea. Around the little village of Gaspra the ground undulates prettily, and every spot is cultivated and covered with rich woods, orchards, vineyards, and gardens, in the midst of which peep out villas and country houses. Every kind of fruit, shrub, and forest tree is to be found; in fact, a more abundant and varied vegetation cannot be seen anywhere. Amongst the fruit-trees are the vine, olive, pomegranate, fig, peach, nectarine, and apricot. The walnut is particularly large in its growth, and may be called a forest tree. The shrubs are beautiful and include the juniper and laurel; and on many of the trees in the hedgerows, for there is a great deal of fencing, the wild hop and vine may be seen climbing from one to the other, mingling with the clematis and forming the most graceful festoons. The whole resembles a view in the neighbourhood of Naples. Seen from the water it is remarkably striking, but nothing can be imagined more enchanting than the drive through the scenery along this coast.

On the top of a hill not far from the road, and near some old ruined fortresses, is an ancient monument which the traveller will little expect to find in Crim Tartary, namely rocks piled up exactly like the Celtic remains of Brittany and Cornwall.

Beyond Gaspra the road winds inwards in order to pass the limestone strata of the promontory of Aithodor. A wild path of 2 m. leads from the road to the summit of the promontory, in the midst of oriental juniper-trees and ruins at every step. On the top are 5 columns of white marble, and the remains of an ancient monastery, which probably, continues Mr. H. D. Seymour, occupies the site of some ancient Greek temple placed like that at Sunium in Attica.

Morgudu or *Orianda de Witt*, a palace built by Count de Witt, a native of Holland, and bequeathed by him to the Grand Duchess Helen of Russia, comes next. It is built on a terrace 900 ft. above the sea, and forms a fantastic assemblage of neglected and decaying buildings in a mixed Oriental, Gothic, and Greek style. Around it is a kind of natural park, in which splendid trees grow on the broken ground interspersed with enormous masses of rock at the foot of the precipice of Mount Megabi, and here the arbutus and juniper-tree grow to an enormous size.

The width of the plain is here nearly 4 m., and Mount Megabi rises in the midst of it. Close to the sea-shore is

the spot chosen by the Emperor Alexander I. to build a retreat which he called Orianda. In the midst of the picturesque chaos peculiar to the coast he formed an English garden, and planted a vineyard and olive-grounds near the modest dwelling-house. The Emperor Nicholas, however, erected in its stead a huge palace, consisting of a centre and 2 side-wings. Internally it is arranged like an old Greek house, and is richly ornamented with wall-painting. The celebrated Schinkel was the architect, and a beautiful work has been published upon it at Berlin. Its low situation on the sea-shore, with high cliffs and tall trees overshadowing it, renders it gloomy, but suited to the health and taste of the late consort of the Emperor Nicholas, who spent several winters there. In the grounds are shown 2 celebrated fig-trees 70 ft. high. Here the Emperor Alexander intended to retire, surrounded by his friends, to whom he meant to allot estates near his own. His sudden death at Taganrog put an end to these projects, and Marshal Diebitsch, who afterwards commanded in the Turkish and Polish wars, was the only one who received an estate of about 100 acres adjoining the emperor's garden.

Just where the two estates meet is a precipitous hill, with many traces of a settlement of the ancient Tauri, whose Acropolis occupied its summit. The estate of Orianda now belongs to the Grand Duke Constantine, who has with great consideration removed the fence on his side of the road, which is here cut in the side of the hill, so that the wayfarer may enjoy a view of his house. At a mile from Orianda are the little Greek village and the Palace of

Livadia, the property of her Majesty the Empress. This beautiful estate is situated on both sides of the post-road to Yalta, and covers an area of about 700 English acres. Most of the estates on this coast were originally given to the Greeks who settled in the Crimea after the treaty of Kuchuk-Kainardji, and Livadia (the Greek word for meadow) fell to the share of Colonel Reveliotti, commander of the Greek battalion. In 1834 it was purchased by Count Leo Potocki, who planted a vineyard, and laid out the present beautiful park and gardens. The gardener who conducted the works was Joachim Tascher, a relative of Josephine, the first wife of Napoleon I. When the latter became Emperor of the French he offered to place Joachim Tascher in a position suitable to his rank and relationship, but Tascher declined, and asked to be allowed to follow in obscurity his favourite botanical pursuits. He was thereupon sent to study gardening under one of the best Swiss gardeners in Alsace. From thence Tascher entered the service of Count Potocki, first on an estate in Galicia, and later at Livadia.

On the death of Count Potocki, who spent large sums in embellishing the house and grounds, Livadia was purchased in 1861 by the Department of Appanages, and by an ukaz of the same year was presented by the emperor to her Imperial Majesty the Empress. Two other estates, Chair-Jacquemart, so called after an eccentric French lady who retired here, and Maraveli, were at the same time added to it, and Professor Monighetti of St. Petersburg was charged in 1862 with the reconstruction of the premises. The *façade* of the palace has been little altered, but the balustrades, vases, and cariatides have very much changed its outward appearance since the days of Count Potocki. A wide balcony runs along one side of the palace, and is the favourite resting-place of the empress during the hot days of summer. The map of the Crimea, which will be seen in this balcony, is by the famous Russian painter Aivazofsky, and the view of Livadia, *à vol d'oiseau*, is the work of the artist Fessler. The interior of the palace is strikingly and elegantly simple, the furniture being covered with a pretty chintz. The handsomest rooms are the emperor's study, the empress's drawing-room, and the dining-room, alongside of which is a fountain.

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Visitors should not fail, if possible, to see the ch. in the palace. It was consecrated in 1866, and is purely Byzantine in arrangement and decoration. The frescoes on the walls were painted by Izel, and the symbolical ornaments and inscriptions are by Beideman of the Imperial Academy. The Ikonostas or altar-screen is of white marble, and on a pedestal of Crimean porphyry is a white marble cross presented to the "Tsar Emancipator" by the workmen of Livadia in token of their "gratitude for the emancipation of the peasants."

Next the palace is the house appropriated to the Grand Dukes. It is in the Oriental style of architecture, and is ornamented after the model of the palace at Bakhchisarai. Beyond this are a house for the suite of their majesties, a bath with a large basin filled with sea-water, barracks for musicians, and, on the road to the sea, a tunnel with a pavilion in the Turkish style, leading to a beautiful walk covered in with trellis-work and roses. The hothouses are full of the choicest plants, and numerous fountains impart their coolness to this enchanting retreat.

The vineyard covers an area of 50 acres, and consists of 170,000 plants, which in 1866 yielded 8000 gallons of red wine, considered the best on the S. coast, and consumed principally by the monks of Kief.

There are traces of ancient building on the estate, and the ruins of a chapel near one of the 4 springs. In the vicinity, also, in a gloomy gorge of the mountains, is the castle of Uchansu, which was used by the Turks as a prison.

A drive of about 5 v. (3 m.) from Livadia will bring the traveller to the pretty villas, which, reminding him strongly of the environs of an English city, form, as it were, the suburbs of

YALTA, chief town of a district, Pop. 1100. *Hotels:* Galakof's Hotel, the best, rooms very expensive, and no cuisine; H. de Yalta, kept by a Frenchman, rooms not as good as at Galakof's, but cuisine excellent, prices moderate; H. Woronzoff, clean and good.

Vehicles, horses, &c.—At the back of the Hôtel de Yalta are livery-stables kept by a Frenchman, where horses with English saddles may be had for the various excursions.

Steamers.—Twice a week, both up and down the coast. Steamer to Odessa takes about 30 hrs.

History.—There is abundant evidence to prove that Yalta was a place of some importance in the remote days of antiquity. The extraordinary groups of stone found near Gaspra and on the road to Massandra, so similar in character to the Druidical or Celtic remains of Western Europe, are considered by archæologists to have been erected and used as altars by the Tauri. At the same time, the history of Yalta only commences in the 12th centy., when Ibn Edrizi, the Arabian geographer, speaks of a town called Galita or Djalita, on the S. coast of the Crimea. He mentions that it was then inhabited by the Comans or Polovtses. From Charters of the Patriarchs of Constantinople it appears that in the 14th centy. Yalita or Gialita belonged to the patriarchs. In the 15th centy. it was in the hands of the Genoese, who kept a special consul there. Towards the end of the same centy. Yalita was almost entirely destroyed by an earthquake, but it was again partially rebuilt. When the Tartars and Turks took the Crimea, Yalta was included in the Kadalyk of Mangup, which belonged immediately to the Sultan of Turkey. It remained an inconsiderable village until 1838, when it was made the chief town of a district of the same name.

The proximity of the little town of Yalta to the finest scenery of the coast, its excellent port and charming situation, make it the rendezvous of the tourists who flock in great numbers to the Crimea during the summer season. The number of Russian families that come here for the purpose of bathing is increasing from year to year, and bids fair to make Yalta the Russian Brighton. The

quay in summer presents a most animated scene, and small craft from all parts lie at anchor in the little bay. Nothing can be more pleasing (we quote from Mr. H. D. Seymour) than the effect of the white town placed at the extremity of the bay, surrounded by rich scenery, with the high crests of the hills behind also covered with verdure. The elegant buildings, the handsome hotels, and the general appearance of the population, all announce it as a town favoured by the rich and pleasure-seeking. The valley of Yalta is very beautiful, and there is nothing on the whole coast more grand than to look down upon it in descending the hill from Magaratch, stretched out in a noble amphitheatre at the foot of the precipices of the Tauric chain. Mount Megabi is then in front, with the village and vineyards of Aútka at its foot; and Orianda and Cape Aithodor may be seen behind it. On the rt., looking down upon Yalta, a great promontory of the Tauric chain, called Mount Yoprakl, about 4000 ft. high, divides the valley into two parts, and at its foot is the little village of Derekoi, hidden by the trees. The rt. branch of the valley is called Ai-Vassili; and a village whence it takes its name is situated at the foot of Mount Lapata.

To judge by the steep, rough aspect of this mountain, one would not imagine that down its sides is one of the principal roads leading from Bakhchisarai to the coast. The road as far as Ai-Vassali follows the course of a rivulet, and the surrounding country has the appearance of an English park, with magnificent trees and cascades. At Ai-Vassili the gardens are filled with date and plum-trees, ash, turpentine-trees, figs, and walnuts. Around the village and above it are seen the sandstone and the schists, and the oak and the elm cover the ground; but at the height of 1000 ft. the limestone is reached, and the Tauric pine takes the place of other trees and grows to a great size. It lasts over the first layer of the limestone for about 700 ft., and is succeeded by the beech and wich elm.

Above these is the naked summit of the mountain, and then, on passing a narrow gorge in the rocks, the traveller emerges on one of the mountain plains or *yailas*. As far as the crest of the mountain the sunny landscape of the valley of Yalta in all its beauty is spread out, with a glorious expanse of sea beyond it shining through a warm and clear atmosphere. Upon the *yailas* everything becomes changed in a moment, and to the warm rays of the sun succeed a cold damp air, and the thick icy fog of a northern region. To mark the road across it, lest travellers should lose their way, heaps of stone are placed at a distance of twenty yards, as far as the woods on the northern slope, which extends nearly to Bakhchisarai.

It has already been said that Yalta might be made the head-quarters of the traveller who wishes to see the Crimea thoroughly, and at the same time pleasantly.

After visiting the cataract of *Uchan-su*, near Yalta, a very picturesque spot, and spending a day in quietude, the traveller will be eager to continue his journey. Should he not have visited Bakhchisarai and Mangup-Kalé from Sevastopol, the excursion may easily be made from Yalta.

By getting up early in the morning, a journey may be made to *Mangup-Kalé*, a very interesting spot, and back, in one day. This will be an excursion of about 12 hrs., but the wiry Tartar horses are capable of a great deal more work, and are, in addition, wonderfully surefooted. The ride is most delightful, and the views from the summit of the mountain-pass the most extensive and varied in the peninsula. The descent to the village of Osembash, on the road to Mangup-Kalé, is precipitous and difficult, but from thence the road passes through exquisite mountain-locked valleys, shaded by noble trees, until the cliff, inaccessible except on one side, where the fortress stands, is visible.

For a description of Mangup-Kalé, and of Bakhchisarai, which may likewise be reached by this route, *vide* Excursion 3.

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7.—*Yalta to Alushta.*

From Yalta to Alushta the distance is 45 v. through a most beautiful country. The road ascends at first up a hill, and on the left are some Cyclopean remains, the stones of which have been partly removed to build the pier at Yalta. At the top of the hill is the ch. of *Massandra*, rebuilt by Prince Woronzoff, in the Doric style, on the ruins of an ancient chapel, famous for its spring of water, which bubbled forth beneath the altar. The spring still follows its ancient course undisturbed, and escapes from the ch. by an arch in the wall; and here the weary traveller may refresh himself with a cool draught, and rest under the fine trees which surround the ch., among which is one of the largest and most venerable oaks on the southern coast.

The *estate of Massandra* belongs to Prince Woronzoff, whose mansion will be seen from the road. The park is very pretty, and the extensive vineyards produce the famous wine which we have mentioned at Yalta, and which is here stored in extensive cellars. The hot-houses are full of exotic plants. Adjoining Massandra is another estate called *Magaratch*, which also produces an excellent wine of the same name; twenty years ago a wilderness, but now covered with beautiful gardens and villas, the land having been parcelled out and sold in small lots to a number of wealthy colonists, who form an agreeable little society of their own.

About 3 m. further on is NIKITA, where are the Imperial Botanical Gardens, a vast establishment for experiments on acclimatization, and practical studies on the plants and trees which might be profitably introduced into the Crimea. It is well worthy of inspection, for every possible variety of tree and plant adapted to the climate is to be found there. Even the distant Himalayas have paid their tribute. The collection of vines is perhaps the largest and most perfect in the world: it was made for an American merchant in the south of France, but subsequently purchased by the Russian Government and transferred to the Crimea. There are upwards of 300 sorts; the black and white Muscats, and the Isabelle, are the best. The traveller should ask to see a peculiar grape which is black and white, and therefore called the Harlequin. The soil, aspect, and climate of this coast are so favourable to the cultivation of the vine, that every kind of wine may be made here; and where quality, not quantity, is made the object of attainment, the wine is excellent. A wine that has the body of good French claret, with the flavour and colour of port, is very good; also the sweet wines, Malaga, Lunel, &c. The vine-dressers are generally French or German. In the garden at Nikita is a curious ruin of the vegetable kingdom, consisting of the decayed and mouldering trunks of some olive-trees which flourished here in the time of the Genoese. This tree, though it grows, does not succeed here, bearing fruit but rarely, and of an inferior quality.

A little beyond Cape Nikita and its garden is the *mountain of St. Daniel*, belonging to Prince Woronzoff, where a kind of champagne, and a very excellent white wine called Ai Dainil, are produced. Passing this, the traveller will enter the *Valley of Urzuf*, the Gorzubita of ancient times, where the Emperor Justinian built a castle, the walls and towers of which still crown an immense rock on one side of the valley. The part built by Justinian is easily distinguished from a second system of defence round it, which appears to be Genoese, on the walls of which Pallas, in 1794, saw embrasures for cannon that have since disappeared. The country here is still extremely rich, and the view from the ruins magnificent. Enormous walnut-trees, fig-trees, and poplars form labyrinths of verdure, and here is situated the retreat which the Duke de Richelieu, the second founder of Odessa, created for himself among the wild Tartar population, when as yet there was no road on the coast. This was the first of the modern Russian attempts at colonization on the coast, and the duke bought the estate in 1817, with

rights upon the village of Urzuf, for 120*l.* Up to 1825 this and Kutchuk Lambat, and Nikita were the only European establishments in this now fashionable locality.

A mole and a tower are still visible defending the little bay of Urzuf. The eastern side of it is formed by the *mountain of Ai-Udagh*, which juts out into the sea to the height of about 1800 ft., presenting a precipice on the side of Urzuf, and only to be ascended from the village of Parthenité, on the opposite side. On the summit are the remains of an ancient castle, the walls of which are composed of enormous blocks of stone without cement. The fortifications are in a large semicircle, the diameter wall of which is about 700 ft. in length, and the thickness of the walls about 5 ft. Where the wall can be approached from the land, 13 towers defend it, but on the side of the precipice there are none.

In looking at the style of this construction, it is impossible to recognise in it a work of the Byzantine Greeks or the Genoese, who always used lime and water, as may be seen in the ruins of Alushta, Urzuf, Sudak, Theodosia, and Balaclava. These ruins are built like those at Little Castele, Demir-Kapu, and other of the most ancient remains in the Crimea. They resemble the Cyclopean walls of Kimmericum (Opuk), and the tumuli of the Gold Mountain near Kertch, and Dubois attributes them to the Tauri and the Tauro-Scythians.

This little fortress has not been inhabited since 1475, that is to say, since the destruction of the Genoese power in the Crimea, but there is no reason to think that it was ever inhabited by the Genoese or the Greeks. There is no trace of temple or other edifice within it, and the only remains of such are to be found immediately on arriving at the top of the mountain, where, nestled among some large trees, rise the ruins of a monastery dedicated to St. Constantine and St. Helen. It immediately overlooked the village of Parthenité; and Dubois, who imagines that it occupied the site of the ancient temple of the Tauric Diana, thinks that this would be a most interesting place to commence some excavations. He believes that, while the temple at Cape St. George, in the Khersonese, was also dedicated to the goddess, this one of Ai-Udagh was the particular temple where Iphigenia exercised her cruel mission; that it was here that Orestes and Pylades appeared to her; hence the bodies of the victims were precipitated from the top of the rock into the sea below; hence she gazed over the wide horizon, and watched for the vessels of her victims.

The Tartar village of Parthenité, or the Village of the Virgin, alluded to by the ancients, still stands at the foot of the promontory of the same name. It lies in a beautiful valley, and a sandy beach enables the inhab. still, as in the Homeric times, to draw their barks upon the land. Here is a celebrated walnut-tree of enormous size, surrounded by benches, under the shade of which the Prince de Ligne wrote a letter to the Empress Catherine, describing to her his astonishment at the extraordinary beauty of the southern coast.

The road from Nikita is carried along at a height of 1000 ft. above the sea, with magnificent ranges of mountains, some of which are 4000 ft. in altitude, towering up inland. Descending then into the lovely valleys of Buyuk Lambat and Kutchuk Lambat, or the Great and Little Lambat,—the old Greek name of the place, meaning the town of the Lamps, Lampadon,—the traveller will see the village of Little Lambat on the shore of the bay, defended from the E. by the promontory Plaka. Beyond the two Lambats, says Mr. H. D. Seymour (who, we cannot too frequently repeat, has collected most of this information, and whom we have in many parts quoted *in extenso*), the ground is covered with ruins of every age, from the most early at Buyuk Lambat to the most recent on the sea-shore. The river Alma rises on the side of the Tauric chain, exactly opposite to the plateau on which Great Lambat is situated.

After passing Cape Plaka, between Great Lambat and the sea-shore, one of

the most extraordinary spectacles that can be witnessed presents itself to the traveller. There suddenly appears a place which is called by the moderns the Chaos and the Tartars Sunenkaia. It is a vast assemblage of enormous masses of rock, as large as houses and as high as towers, composed of fetid black limestone, thrown together in confusion, and sometimes leaning against one another, somewhat in the same manner as at the Trossachs in Scotland. This great amphitheatre of confusion goes on widening for a mile and a half inland, up to Buyuk Lambat; and crossing the high road, and going up towards the mountains, a new Chaos is met with, composed of rocks of ophitic granite instead of the limestone. From the highest point of the mountain all through the Chaos down to the sea-shore the ground is covered with ancient ruins, and the place was evidently chosen by the barbarous population of ancient times, as one secure from attack on account of the difficult nature of the country. The best situation for observing these interesting phenomena, the solution of which lies in the enormous mouth of a crater above the second chaos, is Mount Aithidor, or the Hill of St. Theodore, so called from the ruins of a Greek ch. on the summit.

Further on, Mount Castele completely bars all passage along the coast, and the road is carried on between it and the main chain, which the Tartars call Denúr Kapú, or the Gate of Iron; and, according to their usual system, the Tauri had here established one of their fortresses, in the narrowest part of the gorge, to defend their settlement at Lambat. Three walls of granite blocks formed the *enceinte;* 2, about 200 paces long, run from the perpendicular flanks of Mount Castele, and meet a third, nearly at right angles, on the opposite side of the valley. Everything here shows the infancy of art, and recalls the Cyclopean constructions of Greece, or even the Gaulish camps of France and Switzerland.

On the eastern side of the "Castele," the only remains of the Greeks or Genoese are the foundations of a little edifice outside the fort, in the midst of some trees, looking towards Alushta.

The Tauri are probably the builders of a second fortress much more considerable than the first, and occupying a part of the summit of the mountain. A wall, constructed without cement, here runs from N. to S., from one precipice to another, and encloses numerous traces of habitations and fragments of pottery. The traveller, after passing the gorge, soon finds himself at the top of the descent leading to Alushta, with the town placed on the opposite side of the valley. Here ends the really fine scenery of the southern coast, which extends over a distance of about 40 m. from Phoros (Baidar Gate) to Alushta.

Alushta, 42 v. from Yalta, and 44 v. S.E. from Simpheropol. Pop. 800.

Accommodation.—A night may very well be passed in one of the Tartar houses, which are all very clean. The fare will, however, be simple.

History, &c.—The history of this Tartar village or townlet, so beautifully placed on the sloping side of a gentle elevation, may be read in the ruins of the old fortress of Alushta, built by Justinian in the 6th centy. before Christ. The remains of the wall, 6 ft. in thickness, and of 3 towers, stand on a little hill near the sea-shore. Some remains may also be seen of Greek houses and chs. placed on the most elevated positions. The chs. must have been nearly as large as those of Khersonesus, and in the principal one Mr. Dubois traced a semicircular apse, which showed that either a bishop or at least a priest of high rank presided over the clergy attached to it.

The vineyards of Alushta, in which are about 900,000 vines, protected from N. winds by the giant Tchatyr Dagh, are among the best in the Crimea, and cover, together with rich orchards, the whole of the valley, which is a continuation of one of the defiles of the Tauri chain. Vessels cast anchor in the roads, where the depth is considerable, and load fruit and wine.

There are 2 mosques and a Russian

ch. in Alushta; also a Quarantine Station.

8.—*Alushta to Simpheropol, and ascent of the Tchatyr Dagh.*

The traveller bound to Simpheropol by way of the Tchatyr Dagh will leave the coast at Alushta and proceed northwards for 28 versts, when he will reach the Tartar village of Tautshan Bazaar. Here he should halt for the night, and make arrangements for the ascent of the mountain next day. There is no inn at Tautshan Bazaar, but the post-house presents a sofa; or, if that be objectionable, there will be no difficulty in finding some hospitable Tartar to afford shelter for the night. A stock of provisions should always be laid in when a halt is to be made between any of the principal towns; but bread, cheese, curds and whey, and a few eggs, are generally to be obtained everywhere at a very moderate charge. Horses and guides can be procured at this village, and the ascent will take about 3 hours.

The only object of interest near Tautshan Bazaar is *Kutuzof's Fountain*. In repulsing the Turks, who attempted to land here from their galleys in 1774, the General was shot through the head. The bullet entered near his right ear and came out below the left temple. He only lost an eye, and lived till 1813. The fountain was erected in his honour.

Tchatyr Dagh (5125 ft.) is the highest mountain in the Crimea, and is seen from all parts of the peninsula. The view from its summit is most beautiful. All around it, in the country within the influence of the Tauric chain of mountains, is a succession of verdant hills and valleys, which seem to be a great island surrounded by two oceans, that of the sea on the S., and that of the Steppes on the N., so flat and uniform do the latter appear to be. Tchatyr Dagh means tent-mountain in Tartar, and this name has been given to it because of its form, the last 700 ft. of which rise like a large oblong tent, which in ancient times procured it the name of Mount Trapezus.

While visiting the mountain, the *stalactite caves of Ful Kuba* and *Kisil Kuba* should not be omitted. They are of great extent, and, though somewhat difficult of access, will amply repay the time and trouble devoted to them. The former contains an immense number of human bones, the remains of the unfortunate Genoese who were smoked to death there by the Tartars. After descending the mountain, the traveller, if not too fatigued, must make the best of his way to the post station, and continue his journey to—

Simpheropol, 44 v. from Alushta, on river Salghir. Pop. 17,000.

Hotel, kept by Schnyders, very good; charges about the same as at Sevastopol.

History, &c.—The site now occupied by Simpheropol must have been populated in the remotest times, for many traces of ancient fortifications and buildings are to be found not far from the Alushta road, and almost alongside of the town, at a place called by the Tartars "Kermenchik," or little fortress. Blaremberg, an archæologist of Odessa, arrived at the conclusion that the ruins are those of the fortress of Neapolis, built by the Tauro-Scythian King Skiluros and his sons about a centy. before Christ; and although this supposition has been disputed by others, the subsequent discovery of bas-reliefs and Greek inscriptions, mentioning the name of Skiluros, would seem to confirm the opinion of Blaremberg. Later still, remains of amphoræ were dug up near Simpheropol with the mark "Neapolis" upon some of them. Round, funnel-shaped holes have likewise been laid bare in the rock, and found to contain, some bones, others coals, and even grains of wheat. Tumuli and other very ancient remains are also to be found on the N.W. side of Simpheropol and along the river Salghir. It is impossible to say when the ancient town was destroyed, although the discovery of

Roman coins has proved that it was in existence in the 3rd centy. after Christ.

During the Tartar Khanate, Simpheropol was the site of a village called Ak-Mechet, or White Mosque. Tradition says it dated from the early part of the 16th centy., when Ibrahim-bey, having received from the Crimean Khan some lands on the Salghir as a recompense for a successful expedition into Russia, built here a mosque and a house. In the 17th centy. the village had grown to considerable importance, for it had become the residence of the Kalga-Sultan, or commander-in-chief of the Khan's troops, who was always a near relative of the Khan, and frequently succeeded him. As the residence of the Kalga, it also bore the name of Sultan-Sarai or Sultan's Palace.

On the 3rd (15th) July, 1736, Ak-Mechet was entered by the Russian troops under Generals Izmailof and Biren, but the inhabitants had fled two days previously. Their hamlet, then consisting of 1800 houses, was thereupon burnt down, after the removal of all the provisions found in it. It was gradually rebuilt, and, in 1784, when the Crimea was annexed to Russia, made the chief town of the Taurida province under the Greek name of Simpheropol, or "Gathering Town," from the great diversity of its population.

Like all Russian provincial towns, Simpheropol consists of wide, dusty streets, only partially paved, and lined with large houses, each surrounded by its own court and garden. The Tartars confine themselves to a quarter of the city entirely apart from the rest of the inhabitants. It is, however, rather prettily situated on the banks of the Salghir, which, like all the streams of the peninsula, is only a small brook in summer, but often becomes a foaming torrent in winter. The immediate environs are very beautiful, but there is not much to detain the traveller in the town. An agreeable excursion may be made up the valley of the little Salghir, which runs on the E., parallel to the river on which Simpheropol stands. After passing the village of Mamak, a short distance from Simpheropol, and then that of Kisil-koba, shaded by high trees and with a rivulet running through it, the traveller will come to a very steep ascent among the rocks, where numberless fragments of pottery mark the spot as once having been inhabited. Ascending the sombre and narrow glen, he will arrive on the terrace, at the back of which the Salghir streams forth from subterranean canals. The stream appears to have been several times changed, for above its present place of exit there are two stages of empty canals, forming a series of majestic grottoes. The least elevated, but the most beautiful, rises above the cascade, with a fine entrance about 20 ft. high. At half the depth of the cavern there is a passage of rising ground, which leads into other canals of such an extent, that a French gentleman, having taken provisions and lights, walked for a whole day with his guide without reaching the extremity. The length of these caverns, as far as they are generally followed, is 700 ft., and supposing, says Mr. H. D. Seymour, that the dislocation of the strata which formed them dates from the raising up of the Jurassic island of the Crimea, fossil bones might perhaps be found here of great importance.

9.—*Simpheropol to Theodosia*, viâ *Karasu-Bazar and Stary-Krim.*

From Simpheropol to Karasu-Bazar the road is very uninteresting, and runs over a chalky, undulating ground with little cultivation and few trees; half way is the post-station of Konia, near which are two large tumuli.

KARASU-BAZAR, on Karasú and Tunas rivers. Pop. 14,000. 41 v. from Simpheropol.

Hotels: there are three Tartar inns, and fifty caravanserais and coffee-houses. Travellers will be recommended to the best inn by the proprietor of the Hotel at Simpheropol.

History, &c.—Although the present

town undoubtedly owes its origin to the Tartars, some archæologists are of opinion that its site was more anciently occupied by the Greek town of Mauron-Castron. The caves in the rock of Ak-Kaya, above the town, likewise point to great antiquity. Under the rule of the Tartars, Karasu-Bazar, like Simpheropol, was the residence of a Kalga. Many Christians and Jews dwelt in it with the Tartars, who however, in 1696, destroyed two of the churches, and would have pulled down the synagogue had not the Jews paid a heavy ransom for it. When the Russians ravaged Bakhchisarai, in 1736, Khan Feta-Ghirei removed his capital to Karasu-Bazar, which, however, on the 25th July (6th August), 1737, met with the same fate at the hands of General Douglas, acting under the orders of Field-marshal Lassy. The town surrendered without offering any opposition, but it was nevertheless plundered and reduced to ashes. As the inhabitants had previously fled in great haste, leaving nearly all their treasures behind them, the loot was enormous. In 1772, when the Russians occupied the Crimea, they made it the basis of their diplomatic intrigues. They induced the Tartars to elect Shagni-Ghirei Sultan as their Khan in lieu of Selim-Ghirei, who had been forced to take refuge at Constantinople. Naturally, the new Khan threw off the old allegiance of his race to the Turks, and became a vassal of Russia. In 1784 Karasu-Bazar became for a short time the seat of the Russian administration of the Crimea, and in 1787 it was made a depôt for the arms which were taken from the Tartars.

It is now one of the most thriving industrial and commercial towns in the peninsula, thanks, mainly, to the Armenian merchants who settled among its otherwise exclusively Tartar population. Its position on the high road from Simpheropol to Kertch and Theodosia has likewise contributed much towards its prosperity. The neighbouring country is very fertile, and the vineyards and orchards, sheltered from the N. by the white peak of Ak-Kaya, produce wine and fruit in abundance. Tallow, wool, and hides are likewise considerable articles of export. The inhabitants are skilful in the art of making shoes, saddles, and shaggy felt cloaks; and the town was once celebrated for its cutlery.

The only public edifices of any importance are the khans or caravansarais, where merchants rest on their journeys, and of these there are nearly fifty. The largest, called the *Tachekhan*, was built in 1656 by Sefir Ghazi Atchéin, Minister of Mehmet Ghirey, and is an immense square edifice, presenting outside only four blank walls, but in the inside there is a large court, occupied with rooms for travellers, and a number of shops. The khan of the Armenians contrasts favourably with the others in point of luxury and comfort.

There are 24 mosques in Karasu-Bazar, but none of them remarkable for beauty; also a Catholic ch., 2 Greek chs., an Armenian ch., and several synagogues. The *Russio-Greek* ch. deserves a visit: it is built in the shape of a cross, with a dome which lights the centre. The cemeteries round the town are of enormous extent, and from that of the Greeks there is an admirable view of the town, with its red-tiled houses, winding streets, and shady gardens.

In the neighbourhood of Karasu-Bazar are some flourishing German colonies, which, like those in other parts of the Russian empire, form a striking contrast to the backwardness in agriculture of the native population.

The domains of the Shirin family, the second in rank after that of the Ghireys, begin at Karasu-Bazar, and extend to Kertch. The traveller will pass the *Shirinskaya Gora*, or hill of the Shirins, on which meetings of their dependants used to be held when they disapproved of the conduct of the khans.

A drive of about 17 m. will bring the traveller to

STARY or ESKI KRIM, 66 v. from Simpheropol, and 25 v. from Karasu-Bazar, on river Churuk-su. Pop. 1000.

History, &c.—This was the most ancient capital of the Tartars after their conquest of the Crimea. It is supposed to have been the site of ancient Kimmérion or Krimni; and some ruins in the neighbourhood, and particularly those of some fortifications on the top of Oglù-obà, would seem to favour this supposition. Its importance as a town is, however, to be dated from the middle ages. In 1252 Baty-Khan, who conquered Russia, built here a magnificent palace, and Krim began to spread and to grow rich by commerce, the peninsula itself taking the name of the town. It was also a great slave-market, and Eastern writers affirm that "it is scarcely possible to ride round the town on a good horse in half a day." After 1265 some Turks came over to Krim from Dobrudja, under the leadership of Sadú-Saltuk, who is considered a saint by the Mahomedans. In 1287 the Sultan of Egypt caused a magnificent mosque to be built here of marble and porphyry at his own expense. Another handsome mosque was built in 1314. In the 14th centy. the Ghireys established their capital at Krim, which began to fall when the residence was removed to Bakhchisarai. The Tartar governors of Krim made treaties with the Genoese Consuls of Kaffa. In 1434 the Genoese tried to take possession of the city, but were driven back. In 1478, however, it was taken and sacked by Seid Ahmet, Khan of the Golden Horde, whose dominions Mengli-Ghirey had invaded. Its decadence was complete at the end of the 16th centy. The Russians called it Leucopol for a short time, but its old name was restored when the seat of administration was removed to Simpheropol.

It is now comparatively deserted, and scarce any traces remain of the great city where the rich caravans of olden times used to come laden with all the precious products of Asia. The traces of the pavements of the streets may be observed in the fields that now occupy its site. The ruins of five mosques and large vaulted baths remain; and one Greek ch. and two mosques are still used for religious purposes, one of them being the ancient place of worship. The Armenians, who constitute nearly half the population, have a ch., as well as a convent, built in 1340, and dedicated to St. George. It stands on the neighbouring hill of Kara-su, which is the object of numerous pilgrimages.

The best view of the town is from the hill of Aghermish, which embraces the whole valley, once occupied by buildings, and on one side may be traced the remains of the ancient wall, flanked with towers, which surrounded the city, and included an enormous cemetery, in which tombs may still be seen of every variety of form.

Passing now over a flat, treeless, and arid steppe, the traveller will arrive at

THEODOSIA, the ancient Kaffa, 23 v. from Stary-Krim, on river Churuk-su. Pop. 9000.

Steamers leave twice a week both for Kertch and for Odessa, stopping at several ports.

History, &c.—It has been authentically ascertained that the present town of Theodosia was originally founded by Milesian-Greeks, who either came direct from Miletus, or from the neighbouring colony of Panticapæum, 500 years before Christ. The fertility of the surrounding country, which was at one time the principal granary of ancient Greece, probably caused the town to be called Theodosia or God's Gift. By the Tauro-Scythians it was for some time called Ardavdà, or the "City of the Seven Gods." At the beginning of the 3rd centy. before Christ it was incorporated with the kingdom of Bosporus (Kertch), and together with the latter was later annexed to the Roman empire. Its destruction was effected in the middle of the 2nd centy. after Christ, at the beginning of the "great migration of peoples." For a period of ten centuries after, the plough passed over the site of Theodosia, and it is barely mentioned by contemporaneous historians.

At last, in the 13th centy., the Genoese purchased from Khan Oran Timur the deserted territory of Theodosia, and built on it a town which they called

Kaffa. The date of its foundation is between 1263 and 1267. The Venetians, jealous of their rivals, surprised Kaffa with a fleet of 20 galleys, and utterly destroyed the town. The Genoese, however, soon returned, and, assisted by a colony of Armenians, rebuilt the town, and extended its commerce to such an extent that the Italians began to call the Crimean peninsula "Isola di Caffa." They at the same time enlarged their dominion on the coast, and built many other fortresses, but Kaffa was the principal seat of their power, and consisted of a *castrum burgus*, and *antiburgi*, each surrounded by a stone wall. At Kaffa the Genoese colonies were governed by a Consul, annually elected by the Doge and citizens of the metropolis; but he appears to have been subjected to a supreme ruler, or Podesta, who resided at Galata. In 1318 Pope John XXII. erected Kaffa into a bishopric.

A war having broken out with the Tartars in 1343, Djanibek, Khan of Kipchak, besieged Kaffa, and a crusade was preached in its favour by Clement VI. The Genoese were victorious, but the danger to which they had been exposed made them feel the necessity of a formidable system of fortification. The southern ramparts and palisades of the town were replaced by high and thick walls, flanked with towers, and surrounded by a deep ditch, flanked with masonry. These magnificent works, of which even the traveller of the present day may admire the excellent execution, were commenced in 1353 by Godefrey di Zoaglio, and finished in 1386 by Benedict Grimaldi. The most remarkable tower of the enceinte, the southern one, which commands the whole town, was consecrated to the memory of Pope Clement VI., with an inscription relating to the crusade preached by him at the moment the Tartars were besieging the colony. In 1365 the Genoese conquered the Greek colonies of Cembalon (Balaclava), and Soldaya (Sudak), which were then tributary to the Khan of the Tartars, and in 1380 obtained from him a grant of Gothia, or all the sea-coast between Balaclava and Sudak, which was inhabited by the Christians.

The history of Kaffa is so interesting that we cannot avoid making another long extract from Mr. H. D. Seymour's work.

The Genoese colony thus arrived in the middle of the 15th centy. at the zenith of its glory and power, when the capture of Constantinople by Mahomet II. isolated it from the mother city, and prepared the way for its entire destruction. On the 1st June, 1475, 482 sail of galleys, commanded by the grand admiral Akhmet Pasha, appeared before Kaffa, and some hours afterwards the Genoese town saw its walls bombarded by the formidable artillery of the Ottomans. The siege lasted only a short time, and a large portion of the enceinte, raised at a time when artillery was unknown, gave way; breaches were multiplied, and on the 6th of June, 1475, the besieged surrendered at discretion, after having in vain attempted to obtain a capitulation. Akhmet Pasha entered Kaffa, irritated by resistance, and hostile to the Christian name. After taking possession of the Consular Palace, he disarmed the population, levied a large sum of money on the town, and seized half the property of the inhabitants, as well as all slaves of both sexes. The Latin Catholics were then embarked on board the Turkish fleet and carried to Constantinople, where the Sultan established them by force in the suburbs of his new capital, after taking 1500 of their male children to incorporate in his guards.

The Turks confided the government of the town to a Pasha, but its revenues were paid over to the Khan of the Crimea. In the middle of the 17th centy. the ancient Genoese city had again become considerable. In 1663 Chardin found in the Bay of Kaffa more than 400 ships. The town was then called by the Turks Kutchuk Stambul (Little Constantinople), and had more than 4000 houses, and above 80,000 Inhab. Merchants from Moscow visited it; but it appears that they were badly treated, and some-

times made to dig ditches, carry stones, and generally to work in repairing the fortifications, which their countrymen were destined later to destroy so ruthlessly.

In 1771, after a bombardment, Kaffa was taken by the Russian troops, and in 1787 generously raised to the dignity of district town, under the name of Theodosia; but while on the one hand the Russian government appointed a suffragan bishop to Kaffa, and erected a mint and a custom-house, on the other, its agents were suffered to commit acts of vandalism which can never be forgiven or forgotten. As at Sudak, the erection of barracks was the signal for the destruction of the ancient Genoese monuments. The *revêtements* of the ditches were first carried away, and then the walls themselves disappeared. The magnificent towers which defended them were successively thrown down, and at this day there exist only three remnants of the remarkable bastion christened in honour of Pope Clement VI. The great Turkish baths, an admirable monument of Oriental architecture, and the ancient episcopal ch. of the Genoese, an edifice built in the 14th centy., and then converted into a mosque after the Tartar conquest, met with the same fate. The baths were pulled down, says Mr. H. D. Seymour, "in a most barbarous and ignorant manner," in 1833, by Mr. Kasnatcheief, the civil governor of the town, in order to make room for a parade-ground; while the mosque, after having been partially pulled down for the purpose of being converted into a ch. of the Russo-Greek faith, and the lead of the roofs converted into bullets, was abandoned to the injuries of the weather and public, and soon became a perfect ruin, for want of funds to complete its conversion into a Christian edifice. In 1840 the great square of the town was filled with the precious materials, which were then being sold at the price of common stone. All the beautiful gardens and the rich orchards which surrounded the town in the time of the Tartars have disappeared. One single winter was sufficient for the two regiments that were stationed there to annihilate every trace of the brilliant cultivation which formerly covered the hills.

From the *fort of the tower of Clement VI.* there is a fine view of the town and bay. In the midst of the panorama rises the *ancient Genoese citadel*, now dismantled, with its walls threatening to fall down. Before the citadel, an edifice, remarkable by its 2 massive groups of building, but without any exterior ornament, is the principal Armenian ch., which the emigrants of that nation constructed when they arrived here under the protection of the Genoese, after the terrible earthquake of 1319, which destroyed their celebrated city Anni, in the pashalik of Kars. The ch. in question has been converted into a warehouse, but its interior has preserved the distribution of the religious edifices of Armenia—a grand oratory as an entrance, then a nave, a dome, and a choir, with lateral sacristies.

Another ch., likewise a monument of the Genoese epoch, and which was restored by the Armenians after the Russian occupation, deserves a careful study, as a good and well-preserved specimen of Armenian architecture. The portico is the most ornamental part of the edifice, and the mouldings and roses are as varied as in Gothic and Byzantine styles. There are two images of St. George, the saint in whom the Armenians and the Georgians have so much confidence, and the walls of the ch. are covered both inside and outside with funeral crosses, as in Armenia.

There is a *museum* at Theodosia, which is an ancient Turkish mosque, with two lions at its entrance, brought from Phanagoria. Among the ancient Greek monuments is a griffin of fine workmanship. There are also many Genoese inscriptions, and among them an important one found on the tower of Pope Clement VI.

A short distance from the town is the residence of the celebrated marine painter Aivazofsky, who is married to an English lady, and a visit to whose

studio should, if possible, be made by the traveller.

From Eupatoria the traveller may proceed to Kertch, either by the road (97 v.), or by steamer, which takes about 8 hrs.

10. *Alushta to Theodosia and Kertch, by way of Sudak.*

Travellers who may wish to continue their journey along the coast to Theodosia will consult the following itinerary.

A ride of 8 miles along a sterile and desert shore of the E. coast will bring the traveller to the valley of the *Ulù Uzen*, past a very pretty residence that once belonged to an English lady; and some miles further on is the Bay of Sudak, and the former residence of Mlle. Jacquemart, already mentioned. The cataract of Jurjur and the grotto of Túak lie between Alushta and Theodosia, in the valley of Sudak, which is extremely fertile and picturesque, producing a very good imitation of Champagne.

SUDAK, a small hamlet 83 v. from Theodosia. Pop. 370.

History.—A Greek author of the 13th centy. states that the fortress of Sugdei was built A.D. 212, and in the 8th centy. after Christ a bishopric had already existed here for a considerable time. It became known about the same time under the name of Suroj to the Russians, who attacked it in the middle of the 9th century, and ever after held communication with it. Its merchants, who traded at Moscow in silks, were anciently called "men of Suraj," and their goods "Surajski goods," whence to this day mercery goods are called in Russian *Surovskié*. The Azof Sea is likewise called "Surojskié Moré" in old Russian chronicles. The celebrity of Sudak, Soldaya, or Sugdei, as it was indifferently called at various times, begins properly in the 13th centy., when it belonged to the Venetians, and when it as the centre of their trade with the countries to the N. and S. of the Euxine.

The Tartars took it for the first time in 1223, but were repulsed in 1249. They attacked it again, and ravaged it in 1322. The remonstrance of the pope, John XXII., was, however, sufficient in 1332 to procure from Usbek Khan the restitution of the city to the Christians; but in 1327 it was laid waste for a third time by the Tartars. At last, on the 18th June, 1365, the Genoese took it from the Venetians and fortified it, together with 18 villages, which they at the same time obtained by treaty from the khan, whom they continued to recognise as suzerain. It was then that these bold merchants raised on the most inaccessible part of the rock the formidable fortress with 3 stages, of which the ruins still remain, and on which the Genoese sentinels were ever on the alert to watch over the port, the sea, and the neighbouring country. The city was governed by a special consul, who was at the same time commandant of the fortress.

The Genoese remained undisturbed possessors of their castle for more than a century, but, after the taking of Constantinople and the destruction of Kaffa, Soldaya fell to the Turks, who in 1475 reduced it by famine. Abandoned by its old population, the city was reduced to the position of an insignificant military post when the Russians took it in the 17th century. Then began, as at Kaffa and elsewhere, the destruction of the monuments of the Genoese. Several public and private buildings, which Pallas admired so much in 1793 for their beautiful architecture, disappeared, and their precious remains were used in the construction of huge barracks that were later abandoned, and now form an ugly ruin. Sufficient, however, still remains to tempt the traveller to visit Sudak on his way to Kertch. The following is, like most of the above, extracted from Mr. H. D. Seymour's work:—

"The traveller threading his way among the vineyards may approach the pyramidal rock on which are built

he three stages of the vast and carefully constructed fortress which once protected the surrounding city of Soldaya. The rock is inaccessible on the side of the sea, but may easily be approached from the interior of the valley, where it opens on a broad terrace, defended by an immense rampart flanked by ten towers.

"The entrance-gate is defended by an exterior work; and in front of it, where a German colony has lately been planted, there formerly stood the Genoese part of the town of Soldaya. Between the colony and the gate is a beautiful fountain of ancient workmanship, the water of which formerly supplied the fortress, and above it is placed a bas-relief which has been brought from the ruins, of St. George killing the dragon, and the escutcheon of the Doge Adorno. Over the gate is an inscription declaring it to have been built in the year 1385, when the noble and puissant lord, James Gorevi, was the consul and castellan of Soldaya.

"On entering the gate the traveller stands within the lower fortress, and finds the ground covered with ruins. Here are the immense brick cisterns which contained enough water to supply the garrison for several years; and the aqueduct of earthen tubes, which conducted the rain-water from the rocks above is still visible. Near it are the remains of some Genoese houses in the Gothic style with dates and escutcheons, the only ones which escaped destruction when the Russians occupied the place. Here are also the most uninteresting remains of the huge Russian barracks above mentioned.

"Beyond the ruins of the barracks, in the N.E. corner of the platform, where the rock overhangs the sea with a sheer precipice, is a curious edifice which bears traces of many styles of architecture. It must have been originally built as a mosque, because it does not look E. and W. like a Christian church, but N. and S., with the altar, formerly the *mahárab* of the mosque, turned in the direction of Mecca. It was probably raised by the Tartars when, in a moment of fanaticism, they drove the Greek Christians from Sudak in the beginning of the 14th centy., as the arrangement of the parts and the style of the ornaments are of an earlier date than the Turkish occupation.

"A steep path leads from near the church to the middle fortress, called Katara-Koullé, built in a ledge of the precipitous rock, with the sea chafing round its base. The principal tower is constructed in the noble style of the 15th centy.

"A narrow path along the edge of the precipice leads to the third and highest fortress, called the Kiz-Koullé (the Girl's Tower), which is the real acropolis on the summit of the rock, and consists of a simple square tower, placed like the eyrie of an eagle, commanding a view of the expanse of the sea, the whole of the fortifications, the recesses of the valley, and the circuit of the ancient town of Sudak, in which the smallest details may be observed.

"The eye also follows the windings of the coast as far as Castele and Ai-Udagh, and wanders over the terraces of the Tauric chain that rise one above the other, while turning round and looking inland the traveller sees the Swiss colony which has replaced the Scythian Greeks, Romans, Genoese, and Turks, and occupies the entrance of the beautiful gulf of verdure which stretches inland in the midst of the dark grey rocks."

The best view of the valley of the Sudak and the surrounding country is from the monastery of St. George, placed on a high mountain, a projection from which runs into the sea, and forms the eastern side of the bay. Near Sudak are extensive vineyards, cultivated before the Crimean war by a French company.

At Koktebel, a little village on the border of the sea, about 20 m. from Sudak, the really mountainous parts of the Crimea begin. Beyond it the country possesses no features of picturesque beauty. On all the line from Sudak to Theodosia there is no ancient monument or ruin.

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THEODOSIA. For description *vide* 9, Simpheropol to Theodosia.

About 10 v. from Theodosia the main road to Kertch (which runs through a country described by Strabo as "rich in corn, and full of inhabitants") leaves the coast and runs N.E. to the post station of

Parpatch, about 22 v. from Theodosia: thence to

Arghin, 21 v. E. from Parpatch, and

Sultanofka, 22 v. from Arghin.

From this station the traveller might make an excursion to

OPUK, a Tartar village 60 v. from Theodosia, and about 45 from Kertch.

The hill of Opuk is raised about 50 ft. above a chaotic mass of rocks below, which descend like steps to the sea, forming on one side Cape Elen-Kaya or Kara. Here in very ancient times a numerous population was established. At a short distance from the shore are 2 rocky islands called Karavi, and by these the place is identified as the ancient Kimmericum. The S.E. extremity of the rock was the Acropolis, cut off from the plain by a wall 200 ft. long and 9 ft. thick; the walls of it are about 50 ft. square and 12 ft. thick, and a ditch cut in the rock separated it from the exterior town. There are ruins and grottoes all round, and there is a block cut into the form of a pedestal, on which stood the statue of a divinity. There is likewise a well cut in the rock, and a great deal of pottery. A large gate communicated from the Acropolis to the town. Numberless remains of houses may be traced on the S.E. There were also exterior fortifications, and a polygonal wall defended the whole peninsula between the bay and the gulf, embracing a space of about 4 square miles. Thus there were 2 castles and 2 ports, and probably villas and gardens, within the circuit of the wall. The Genoese are supposed to have carried away the remains of Kimmericum, in order to build Kaffa.

On the coast between Opuk and Kertch, at about 12 m. from the latter, is the *site of ancient Nymphæum*, which was founded at the same time as Panticapæum, and fell into the power of the Athenians in the time of Pericles. It was betrayed into the hands of the Bosporians in B.C. 410. In the time of Mithridates it was still a strong place, where he lodged the greater part of the army which he destined for his grand expedition by the Danube and the Alps against the Romans. Nymphæum afterwards rapidly decayed, and in the time of Pliny existed only as a name.

The town was situated on the angle between the ancient gulf and the Bosporus. The rampart is easily traced, and the suburbs were around the metropolis. There are large masses of ruins everywhere, and the soil is several feet deep in broken pottery, much of which is Etruscan. At about one-third of a mile from the town the *tumuli* begin. A small colony of Russians is established at the foot of the Acropolis, on the side of the Bosporus; and here are wells of excellent water, which date from the time of Nymphæum. Large quantities of herrings are caught here.

The traveller who has not made this digression will proceed from Sultanofka to KERTCH, and make from thence excursions to Opuk and to the vast number of other ruins and tumuli scattered all over the country from Theodosia.

KERTCH, 23 v. from Sultanofka, 88 v. from Theodosia, and 201 v. from Simpheropol. Pop. 21,000, with Enikalé.

History, &c.—The history of Kertch goes back to the 6th centy. before Christ, when Greeks from Miletus established on its site a colony which they called Panticapæum, which later became the capital of the "Kingdom of the Bosporus," the first sovereigns of which, it is supposed, were of Scythian origin. In the first centy. before Christ the Bosporians paid tribute to Mithridates King of Pontus, whose son Pharnaces rebelled, and became the progenitor of a new line of Bosporian kings, whose rule was maintained under the protection of the

Romans until the 4th centy. of the Christian era. They even extended their dominions, as we have already seen, along the whole of the coast of the Crimea, and even to the shores of the Sea of Azof. The kingdom of the Bosporus was destroyed during the great migration of nations, and its history after that event remains somewhat obscure. While the city was under the dominion of the Emperors of the East it was frequently ravaged by barbarous tribes, and particularly in the 7th centy. by the Khazars, who had then taken possession of the Taurida. The Tartars, having occupied the peninsula in the 13th centy., ceded the Bosporus in 1318 to the Genoese, who began to call the ancient town Cerkio, and converted it into a prosperous emporium of trade; but at the end of the 15th centy. Kertch fell into the hands of the Turks, who made it one of their military harbours. Its importance as such was considerably increased when the naval war between Russia and Turkey commenced. In 1771 Kertch was occupied by a Russian corps, and together with Enikalé was ceded to Russia by the treaty of Kuchuk-Kainardji. It then became a basis of the Russian operations against the Tartars. Many Greeks from the Archipelago were subsequently settled here, and later, emigrants from Roumania, Bulgaria, and Varna.

Kertch remained a military station until 1821, when the fortifications were dismantled, and the town was opened to maritime trade under an independent municipality. It was next made a quarantine station; but its foreign trade has remained very inconsiderable, the principal industry of the inhabitants being the raising of salt and fishing. In 1855 the town was occupied by an English and Turkish force for more than a year. The effects of a bombardment are still visible in dismantled houses and ruined public buildings. The museum on the Hill of Mithridates, of which the contents were fortunately removed by the Russians, is likewise in ruins.

Kertch, like all Greek colonies, is charmingly situated. A hill called *the Arm Chair of Mithridates* rises at a short distance from the shore. Around it was originally built the old Greek town, and on its sides were once clustered a variety of Greek temples, crowned on the top by the *Acropolis*. The Turkish fortress below the hill has been cleared away to make room for a handsome square, surrounded by arcades, from which streets diverge in all directions. Two or three days may very well be spent in visiting the numberless ancient remains in the neighbourhood. The ch. of Kertch, which formerly stood in the fortress, is a curious specimen of Byzantine architecture, and the date of its erection engraven on one of its columns (A.D. 757) proves it to be the oldest Byzantine temple now remaining in the Crimea. The Acropolis was an irregular polygon in shape, and the ditches and some parts of the walls (the latter in the coarse limestone of Kertch) may still be traced. The fortified town touched the Acropolis in the form of a long square, of which the Acropolis occupied the S.E. angle. The wall in its circuit enclosed only the summit and the northern slope of the Hill of Mithridates. The southern side seems never to have been fortified, although there are numerous traces of the foundations of buildings.

Mr. H. D. Seymour says that the "Arm Chair" is evidently only part of an ancient edifice in which it was included, the form of which may be traced by the foundations of the walls. The principal gate of the town was turned towards the interior of the peninsula, in the centre of the western wall. It led to Nymphæum and Theodosia, and the place is easily recognised by the interruption of the deep ditch which ran along it. At 240 yds. from the gate which led to Theodosia was an avenue of *tumuli*, ranged several rows deep on each side, in an irregular manner, and continuing for two-thirds of a mile. This long series of tombs, continues Mr. H. D. Seymour, seems to date, in great measure, from the foundation of the town by the Milesians. At a later period the dwellings of the dead be-

came more extended, and occupied the range of hills in continuation of Mount Mithridates for 6 or 7 m. in length, and here are found the tombs of the kings. Tumuli are also found on the other side of the low plain to the N., where they form three grand groups, the best known of which is near the modern Quarantine. The gate to the N. of the Theodosian gate led to the Greek city of Dia, near Kamishborùn. Along it were the tombs of the poorer inhabitants, who buried their urns and cinders around a coral-rag peak, 245 ft. above the level of the bay.

The enormous quantity of *tumuli* round Kertch forms one of the distinguishing features of the place. Many of them have been pillaged in ancient as well as in modern days, and some have been unfortunately opened without sufficient care. Scientific researches were first made in the neighbourhood of Kertch in 1825, when Blaramberg found a considerable number of gold ornaments, but the excavations of 1830 yielded a far greater prize in the shape of an undisturbed tomb of a Bosporian king and queen. It was found in the tumulus of Kul-Uba, 6 v. S.W. of Kertch, on the road to Theodosia. The gold and silver ornaments weighed more than 100 lbs. avoirdupois, but the greater part of them were stolen the night after their discovery, and the government only succeeded in 1859 in purchasing that portion of the treasures which is now exhibited in the Hermitage at St. Petersburg. Many other tumuli were subsequently opened, and their valuable contents properly secured. One of the latest and richest discoveries was made in 1858, when a sarcophagus of cypress-wood was found in a tumulus on the Pavlosk battery. (For a description of its treasures *vide* "Hermitage, St. Petersburg," and Mr. H. D. Seymour's work.)

Enikalé is at the point of the peninsula, about 7 m. from Kertch, to the N.E. Its castle was built by the Turks to command the passage of the Bosporus.

From Kertch the traveller will either return by boat to Odessa, or continue his journey to Rostof on the Don and Novocherkask, and thence up the Volga; or he may go by steamer to the Caucasus.

A very pleasant and instructive excursion may likewise be made from Kertch to Taman, the ancient Phanagoria. The steamers of the Russian Black Sea Navigation Company maintain the communication.

Steamers.—The steamer for the Caucasus leaves Kertch on the same day that the boat arrives from Theodosia, so that a delightful excursion to the grand coasts of the eastern shores of the Black Sea is quite feasible. The steamer touches at Novorossisk, Túapsé, and Sukhum Kalé, and reaches Poti in about 60 hrs. from Kertch. From Poti the traveller can proceed by the steamers of the Russian Steam Navigation Company to Batoum, Trebizond, and Constantinople, thus making the entire circuit of the Black Sea. The boat from Batoum arrives at Constantinople in time to catch the Messageries Impériales steamer for Marseilles. The traveller may remain on board these steamers while they are in harbour upon making an arrangement with the steward for his board,—a proceeding which he will find more reasonable than the charges at an hotel.

Consulate.—There is a *British Consul* at Kertch.

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ROUTE 18.

KERTCH TO TSARITSIN ON THE VOLGA, BY ROSTOF.

After coaling at Kertch, the Crimean steamer proceeds through the Straits of Enikalé for the ports of the Sea of Azof. The coast on either side is uninteresting, and the sea is of dirty colour and pea-soup consistency. In autumn the surface of the water is thickly matted with weeds, but the great quantity of shipping gives life and variety to the scene. The first place of stoppage (in about 12 hrs. from Kertch) is

BERDIANSK. Pop. 10,000.

This maritime town was founded by Prince Woronzoff in 1827. It has a considerable trade in grain, linseed, tallow, &c.; also in salt, which is raised in the neighbourhood; and it is the seat of a British consulate. There is nothing to interest the traveller at Berdiansk. In about 24 hrs. after leaving Kertch the steamer will cast anchor at

Mariùpol, near mouth of Kalmius riv. Pop. 6000.

This was originally a colony of Greeks from the Crimea, who, in 1779, to the number of 18,000, obtained free grants of land on this part of the coast. The population is still almost exclusively Greek. There are five Greek churches. In the *Ch. of the Assumption* is a miracle-working picture of the Virgin, brought there by the Greeks who removed from Bakhtchisarai. It was on the Kalchik river, which falls into the Kalmius a little above the town of Mariùpol, that the Russian princes met with their first defeat at the hands of the Mongols, in 1224. *Vide* Hist. Notice, "Battle of Khalka." In about 6 hrs. the steamer will cross over to the opposite coast, and stop for a short time at

EISK, at the mouth of the Ei river. Pop. 20,000.

Founded in 1848, this town has grown rapidly in population, to whom an immunity from taxation was granted until the year 1859. It has a small trade in corn, wheat, and linseed. In 10 or 12 hrs. the steamer will have reached the end of her voyage at

TAGANROG. For description *vide* Rte. 15.

During the summer (from May to 4th (16th) October) steamers leave Taganrog three times a week for Rostof. Fare 2½ rs. Passage in about 6 hrs.

ROSTOF, on river Don. Pop. 29,000.

Steamers, &c.—The traveller bound to the Volga is recommended to go at once on board the steamer which ascends the Don twice a week to Kalatch, and secure a sofa. The boats have one large cabin common to all 1st-class passengers, and one for the 2nd class. There is also a ladies' cabin, and a deck-house for the use of the 1st-class passengers. A cabin with two berths may, however, frequently be secured, the charge for the latter being 50 rs., while the 1st-class fare to Kalatch is only 17 rs., with the addition of 70 cop. per poud for any luggage in excess of 1 poud. The charge for living on board is 1½ r. a day, exclusive of wine; and a gratuity to the steward of ½ r. at the end of the voyage will be sufficient. As the steamers do not run through the night, the voyage occupies about 2½ days, the distance being about 350 versts.

History, &c.—The history of Rostof dates only from 1761, when the Empress Elizabeth caused a fortress to be built there, near the fort of St. Anne, raised by Peter the Great, and intended both to keep the Cossacks in proper awe and submission, and as a basis of operations against the Turks. The towns of Rostof and Nakhichevan subsequently grew up in the vicinity of the fortifications. The now dismantled *fortress of St. Dimitry*, established in the reign of the empress, lies between the two towns. Rostof is very picturesquely situated on the

elevated rt. bank of the Don, at the mouth of the Temernik rivulet. It is now a considerable, and still improving, place of trade. Large fairs are held twice a year, when great numbers of horned cattle and horses are brought for sale.

There is nothing to interest the traveller at Rostof, and he will direct his attention principally to the beautiful scenery of some parts of the Don, and to the novelty of the life with which he is surrounded.

The Don, the ancient Tanaïs, is one of the most important rivers of Russia in Europe. Rising in a lake (Ivanozero) in the province of Tula, its course as far as the Sea of Azof is about 1300 Eng. m. in length. The river becomes somewhat navigable in its middle course, between the mouth of the Voronej riv., and the stat. of Kachalin, 74 v. above Kalatch, where it flows through a chalky formation. From Kachalin the rt. bank rises considerably, exhibiting strata of the upper tertiary formation, whilst the l. bank is low and frequently inundated in spring. The celebrated vineyards of the Don stretch along the rt. bank of the river, throughout its lower course, which terminates in a delta a little below Rostof. The utmost activity prevails on the middle and lower courses of the river. The quantity of goods floated down the Don in 1860 weighed 135,000 tons, of the value of 4½ millions of roubles. The fisheries on the lower course of the Don have been a monopoly of the Don Cossacks since the 17th centy. The yield of fish becomes particularly rich from the Aksai station. The quantity of fish annually taken before 1860 was about 16,380 tons, in addition to 7 million herrings. A thousand pouds of caviar (160 tons) are annually extracted from the sturgeon, which is the principal fish caught, and of which the great mass is smoked on the spot. Fishing is likewise carried on in winter, when the fish taken through holes in the ice are allowed to freeze, and are carried over the whole of Russia in a frozen state.

At Kalatch, now the most important wharf on the Don, the traveller will take rail for Tsaritsin on the Volga. The railway was opened in 1861 by an American Company, but is now in the hands of the government. It is well made, and the carriages are very comfortable. The distance is 73 v., and the fare, 1st class, 2 rs. 19 c. It is best to go on board the Volga steamer at once, and secure a berth. From Tsaritsin the traveller can either ascend the river to Nijni Novgorod (fare 35 rs. exclusive of living), or he may proceed downwards, and visit Astrakhan (295 m.) and Astrabad on the Caspian, returning by the same route; for description of which *vide* Rte. 9, the Volga: Tver to Astrakhan.

ROUTE 19.

ROSTOF TO NOVOCHERKASK.

A very pleasant excursion may be made from Rostof, either by rail or by steamer, to Novocherkask, the capital of the Don Cossacks, and by rail to the coal-fields of Grushevka, 66 v. from Rostof.

Novocherkask. Pop. 20,000.

History, &c.—The town is very prettily situated on an eminence, on three sides of which flow the Aksai and Tursova rivulets. The territory of which it is the capital has an area of 2806 square geographical miles, and

its limits will be seen defined on the map. It was well known to the ancients, for the Greeks had a colony (Tana) on the shore of the Sea of Azof, 5 cents. B.C., and several factories along the Don. The greater part of the country was held successively by the Scythians, Sarmatians, Huns, Bolgars, Khazars, and lastly by the Tartars, who defeated the Russian princes, in 1224, on the Khalka, within the present territory of the Don Cossacks, as already stated. The present population dates from the early part of the 16th centy., when renegades from Moscow, vagrants of every description, formed themselves into military or rather robber communities, and styled themselves "Cossacks." In the 16th and 17th cents. they frequently made expeditions against the Tartars and Turks, and in 1637 took the Turkish fortress of Azof, which they were, however, forced to relinquish five years later. Until the reign of Peter the Great the Russians did not interfere much with the powerful and independent Cossacks, but from 1718 they were gradually brought under the power of the Tsars, whom they assisted in all subsequent wars. Episodes in the history of the Cossacks will be found scattered throughout this Handbook.

The town of Novocherkask, founded in 1804, has considerably improved under the Hetmanship of General Potapoff, whose palace and garden should be visited by the traveller. Not far from the palace is a bronze monument raised to the famous Hetman Platoff, who led the Cossacks between 1770 and 1816. There is a theatre, as well as a club-house. The latter should be visited for the purpose of tasting the excellent champagne of the Don.

The anthracite coal-fields of Grushefka are about 30 v. N. of Novocherkask. The coal has been worked since 1839, and the quantity now annually raised is 6 to 7 million puds. The area of the coal formation is about 267,000 square fathoms. The quality of the coal is tolerably good, for it contains 94·96 per cent. of carbon, and is much used by the steamers in the Black Sea, and also on the Volga-Don Railway.

ROUTE 20.

LONDON TO TIFLIS, BY CONSTANTINOPLE. —THE CAUCASUS.*

There are two principal routes to Persia *viâ* Tiflis and the Caucasus:—one by way of Constantinople and the Black Sea; the other by way of St. Petersburg and the Volga.

[*Obs.* Those who set out to travel in the Caucasus should not omit to provide themselves with everything requisite in a country where the modern appliances of civilized life are almost entirely wanting. The outfit should include a saddle, a portable bath, and a small cork bed. The money which a traveller will find most useful in Georgia is a supply of *napoleons*, easily exchanged for Russian money in the towns. A supply sufficient for the entire journey should

* The route here described may be joined from *Odessa*. There is a service of the Russian Steam Navigation Company's steamers between Odessa and Poti, corresponding with the steamers of the same Company which run between Batoum and Constantinople.

The route to Persia by way of Trebizond and Erzerum is not described here, as it does not pass through any portion of the Russian dominions. It is, moreover, not to be recommended, for the journey from Trebizond has to be performed on horseback, with miserable accommodation on the way, and not always in security.

be taken: and before leaving any town it is necessary to secure a considerable number of rubles in paper and small silver coins, wherewith to pay at each station for post-horses. The hire of post-horses throughout the Caucasus is 3 copecks a verst for each horse; no charge is made for the cart, but the drivers expect a small present of 15 to 25 cop. at each stage. At the stations travellers will generally only find a *samovar* or tea-urn, and nothing but eggs and black bread to eat; beef or mutton is for the most part not to be found. The utmost which the traveller will obtain through the Russian provinces, except at the towns, is very bad soup, or a fowl newly killed; vegetables and fruit are very scarce. But desirable as it is that more attention were paid to the provisioning of the stations, travelling in Georgia has a charm which fully compensates for the privations and causes them to be forgotten. Every facility is given by the Russian authorities to stranger tourists. In most parts of the provinces travelling is perfectly safe; and wherever it is attended with danger, as in Circassia and Daghestan, no one is allowed to proceed without the protection of a sufficient guard. The climate is at all seasons very pleasant, excepting towards the Persian frontier in the summer months; and no one need be disappointed with a tour in this—

"beauty's native clime,
Where Kaff is clad in rocks and crown'd with snows sublime."]

The route by Constantinople and the Black Sea, being the most expeditious, is described first:—

[*Obs.* Travellers must select their own route to Constantinople, which may be reached, 1. *viâ* Marseilles; 2. *viâ* the Danube; 3. *viâ* Trieste; and 4. *viâ* Ancona.]

The steamers of the Russian Steam Navigation Company ply between Constantinople and Poti. Travellers change at Batoum into a steamer which performs the service between that port and Poti, and which has a less draught of water to enable it to cross the bar of the river Rion.

Poti.* A fortified harbour at the mouth of the river Rion, the ancient Phasis, on the Caucasian coast of the Black Sea. The town is composed of a collection of wooden houses surrounded by a forest. The principal drawback to its development is the bar at the mouth of the Rion, which prevents most vessels from entering the river, and where it is very often so rough as to make all communication between the shore and the shipping outside impossible.

The climate of Poti is disagreeable, and fever prevails during the summer months. It is nevertheless the port of Tiflis, from which it is 360 v. (or 240 m.) distant, and a place of growing importance.

Hotels: "Colchide;" and another, more recently established, close to the landing-place of the steamer:—both kept by Frenchmen.

A British Vice-Consul resides at Poti.

From Poti a small steamer proceeds up the Rion, twice a week, to Maran, 86 v. or 57 m. distant. There are no post-horses between Poti and Maran, but travellers have been able to secure riding-horses. In summer, when the road is dry, the distance may be accomplished in one day with the same horses; but in winter, when the mud is knee-deep, it is necessary to pass a night on the road. The way lies through the famous Mingrelian forest. The scenery along the Rion is beautiful. To the right are the Lesghian mountains, and to the left, far away, are the snow-covered peaks of the Caucasus. The structure of the houses, built on piles, would seem to indicate a very damp and feverish country on both sides of the river. The Mingrelians and Imeritians, who will be met on the road, are probably the hand-

* A rly. is in course of construction from Poti to Tiflis. When completed, it will attract a great number of tourists to the Caucasus, a fuller description of which must be reserved for a new edition.

somest race in the world; and no one can travel through their country without being struck by the remarkable beauty of the women.

Maran is a military station and contains about 2000 Inhab. The garrison is composed in great part of "Scoptsi," a Russian religious sect of which the tenets enjoin self-mutilation. The Caucasus is their place of banishment when discovered. As soldiers they are said to be very easily managed. The post-house is the place of refuge for travellers. Post-horses may be obtained here for Tiflis, and thence to Bakù or Lenkoran, to the Persian frontier at Djulfa, or to any of the chief towns of the Caucasus. The posting establishment is so extensive as to occasion a considerable loss to the Government, at whose charge it is maintained. Travellers with courier *podorojnas* will get the best horses. A drive of 4 hrs., at an ordinary speed, will bring the traveller to

KUTAIS (Pop. 5000), the ancient Cyta, the principal city of Colchis, and now the capital of Imeritia. It was to this place that Jason and his companions came in the Argo to obtain the Golden Fleece. The town is delightfully situated among green hills; and the Rion, twice crossed by stone bridges, flows through it. On a hill a little above the town are the remains of a building attributed to the Genoese. There are two hotels at Kutais; the proprietor of one is a Hungarian, and of the other a Russian; but no comforts will be found at either of them. It was to obtain possession of Kutais that Omar Pasha undertook the campaign on the eastern coast of the Black Sea in the autumn of 1855. The late advance of the Turkish army and the want of an efficient commissariat made the expedition abortive.

There are 6 stages between Kutais and SURAM, at the watershed that separates the provinces of Imeritia and Georgia. The first station is agreeably situated, and commands a good view. It contains 2 good-sized rooms. The road is rough, and the ordinary vehicles very uncomfortable. Those who are fond of fine scenery should make the fifth stage, through the splendid pass of Suram, in the daytime. The mountains through which the road winds are covered with trees from their summits to the valleys beneath. In winter the scenery loses much of its beauty, but nothing more picturesque can be imagined than the pass in the month of October, when the trees wear a great variety of tints. Several castles perched upon heights in front of the pass command extensive views. An ascent of about an hour and a half brings the traveller to the crest of the ridge, where the waters flow eastward. The same time will be occupied in descending the pass to the station of Suram.

There are 6 stations from Suram to Tiflis. The scenery becomes tamer; hills, more or less wooded, rise to the rt. and l. of a bare plain, through which a metalled road has not yet been constructed. In the mountains near Suram is a watering-place called Burjan, to which the Imperial Lieutenant of the Caucasus retires in summer. The river Kur, the ancient Cyrus, takes its rise in that district. The town of GORI is situated upon it 2 stages beyond Suram. Before reaching it, the road crosses to the rt. bank of the Kur. The town is not, however, on the direct road to Tiflis. Its high rock is visible at a great distance. There are some interesting ruins in the neighbourhood. The road to Tiflis follows the river. Bare hills rise above the valley of the Kur, presenting a complete contrast to the richly-wooded provinces of Imeritia and Mingrelia. Beyond Gori the traveller will pass MIZKETTRA, the ancient residence of the kings of Georgia. It is now a ruin, still however containing 2 churches of some sanctity, in one of which the kings of Georgia were crowned, and where to the present day the bishops of Tiflis are consecrated. This church is said to have been erected in the 10th cent., and it was laid waste by Timùr. The road from here to Tiflis crosses a bridge, ascribed by tradition to Pompey. At a short distance from Tiflis the Kur

along which the road runs, is confined between high walls of rock in which are many artificial caverns. By travelling as courier without intermission, on the second day after quitting Kutais the traveller will reach

TIFLIS. Pop. 61,000. The seat of government of the Caucasus, and the residence of the Imperial Lieutenant.

Hotels.—Caucase, opposite the theatre (to be preferred, being kept by a Frenchman); Hôtel d'Italie; Hôtel de Paris; and Hôtel Débèque.

Conveyances.— Excellent phaëtons and drojkies may be hired by the hour.

History.—*Tiflis* is supposed to have existed since the year 469, when the Georgian monarchs made it their residence. It derives its name from the mineral springs which it contains. What is now called Georgia was anciently known as Iberia, lying between Colchis and Albania. The capital of Iberia was Zelissa. Iberia was not subjected to the Medes and Persians, and it is first mentioned in Western history when Pompey penetrated through it to Albania on the Caspian Sea. Georgia is bounded on the N. by the pass of Vladi-Kavkas, anciently called the *Pylæ Caucasæ*. It formed part of the Roman empire from the time of Pompey, and was afterwards long the theatre of contest between the Lower Empire and the Persians. From the 8th centy., or still earlier according to other records, dates the rise of the dynasty of the Bagratides, which flourished till the year 1801, when Georgia became a Russian province. The Bagratides were at that time the oldest reigning family in Europe, if not in the world. They asserted their descent from King David of Israel. Prince Bagration, so distinguished in his struggle with the French, and who fell at Borodino, was the descendant of the kings of Georgia. Theraclius, the last king of Georgia, was forced to quit his capital on the approach of Aga Mahomed Khan, the first Kajar ruler of Persia. At his death he left his kingdom under the protection of Russia, and it was shortly after incorporated with the Empire.

Topography, &c.—The town, which is picturesquely situated upon the banks of the Kùr, with a distant view of Mount Kazbek and the mountain chain of the Caucasus, presents a mixture of Oriental and European types. It has a boulevard with shops on either side, and with the principal public buildings along it. There are a few other European streets, which are, however, unpaved, and therefore almost always either very dusty or very muddy. The principal building is a *covered square bazaar*, with rows of shops round it, and with the opera-house in the centre. The *theatre* is a very handsome building when seen from the inside. The *palace of the Imperial Lieutenant* overlooks the boulevard. The houses of the chief civil and military authorities, scattered over the town, are handsomely built. The chief resort in the afternoon is the *large public garden* overlooking the Kùr, beyond the German colony, which is on the rt. bank of the river. The Kùr is crossed within the town by 2 bridges, the principal of which was built by Prince Woronzoff, when Lieutenant of the Caucasus. A statue of the prince stands at one end of it. Most of the foreigners resident in Tiflis are Germans and Frenchmen. The former, now Russian subjects, are descended from refugees who quitted Wurtemberg to enjoy religious liberty. The German colony is a model of neatness and prosperity. Many of the resident Frenchmen visit the Trans-Caucasian provinces every year to purchase silkworms. The variety of costumes to be seen at Tiflis is very great and interesting. The Circassian and Daghestan dresses are more particularly picturesque. The Persian population, which is very considerable, is confined to the lower part of the town, where whole streets and bazaars are filled with their houses and shops. The mineral baths are situated in the Persian quarter of the town. An excellent view of the whole city may be obtained from the Botanical Gardens above the town.

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The climate of Tiflis is very mild and pleasant in winter, but in summer it is intensely hot. It is in fact deserted at that season for the watering-places in the neighbourhood.

In the neighbourhood of Tiflis are the vineyards of *Kahétie*, which produce the wine of that name. It is of 2 descriptions, red and white, and is very much esteemed throughout Trans-Caucasia. It is not made with a view to being long preserved, and has therefore not been much exported, although travellers will find it at Moscow and St. Petersburg. As it is kept in leather bags, it has generally a slight flavour of leather. It is exceedingly cheap. Foreign wines, and indeed all foreign articles, are very dear in Georgia; English porter, for instance, being sold at the rate of 2 rs. a bottle.

From Tiflis travellers can either proceed by land *viâ* Ararat and Tabreez, or take the steamer at Bakù or Lenkoran to Resht or Astrabad on the Caspian.

ROUTE 21.

TIFLIS TO TEHERAN, BY ARARAT AND TABREEZ.

The route generally followed from Tiflis to Teheran is that by Erivan, the Aras (Araxes), and Tabreez. The road to the Persian frontier on the Aras is sometimes more or less insecure, but travellers are furnished with a small escort where necessary. Between Tiflis and Nakhitchevan there is a post-road with stations, where horses can be obtained, and travellers can sleep, on the same terms as between Maran and Tiflis.

There are 17 stages between Tiflis and Erivan, which may be reached in about 3 days. The first portion of the route lies through a bleak and treeless district, which presents the most common features of Persian landscapes—large plains bounded on either side by hills. A bridge will be crossed which marks the point to which Abbas Mirza advanced in the last war between Persia and Russia. The scenery improves at the 8th stage. Beyond, the road is steep and bad. After 2 more stages the scenery assumes an entirely opposite character from that of the broad dreary plains previously passed. Wood, streams, and mountains, with rocks cropping out, now occur. The pass of Diligen is equal to any Swiss scenery.

The *Gukcheh* (or Gotcha) *lake* bursts suddenly upon the view at the summit of the pass. The lake is of considerable extent, and produces large quantities of delicious trout. The road for some distance follows the shore of the lake, and one stage ends upon it. The character of the scenery for some distance beyond Gukcheh is still mountainous and wild, and at the 3rd stage before Erivan the greater and the lesser Ararat are seen towering above the surrounding plain. The last 2 stages into Erivan are exceedingly rough and stony.

Erivan (Pop. 12,000), excepting in the breadth of its streets, presents the characteristics of a Persian city. Its population consists chiefly of Armenians. It is overlooked by a fort which was the stronghold of the Persian khans before the province was ceded to Russia in 1828. By means of the extensive system of canals here in use, the plain of Erivan is rendered very fertile. The view of Mount Ararat from the town is unbroken by any intervening objects. *The convent*

of Etchmiadzeen, the residence of the patriarch of the Armenian Church, is 12 m. from the town, the road to it being parallel to one side of Mount Ararat, which is distant about 30 m. from Erivan. The cathedral of Etchmiadzeen is built chiefly in the Byzantine style, and is surrounded by high walls. Among the monuments to the dead who repose within its precincts is a marble slab to the memory of Sir John Macdonald, envoy to the Shah of Persia, who died of cholera at Tabreez. There is an unwillingness on the part of the monks to show their library. The next station of importance is

NAKHITCHEVAN (Pop. 6000), a district town, reached after 7 stages. The road from Erivan passes to the other side of Ararat from that on which stands the monastery of Etchmiadzeen. The Nakhitchevan road is on the E. Behind Mount Ararat and adjoining it stands the lesser Ararat. Rising directly from the plain, nothing can be more striking and majestic than the solitary Ararat, with two peaks on the same pedestal. The higher of the two is covered with snow all the year round, and presents great difficulties to those who attempt to reach its summit. The heat at Nakhitchevan is frequently excessive.

Hence to the Persian frontier on the Araxes is a drive of 4 hrs. down a gradual descent. Either power has a frontier station on the river, which here flows through a scene wild and desolate to a degree. A strong wind is almost constantly blowing, so that tents can with difficulty be pitched, and are in constant danger of falling. Travellers put up at the new station-house.

From the Araxes to Tabreez is a distance of about 80 m., which is equally divided into 4 stages. At the end of the 2nd stage, at the town of Marend, the road joins the highway from Erzeroum to Tabreez. The day after leaving Marend the traveller will arrive at

TABREEZ, which covers an immense space in the midst of a large plain flanked by bare hills. It is supposed to be identical with the ancient Gansaca or Gaza, which was the capital of Atropatena. The modern name of the province is Azerbijàn. From its extent and fertility it is the most important province in Persia, and is usually committed to the care of the heir-apparent. Tabreez has undergone many changes. It was a favourite residence of Haroun al Raschid, and it continued to flourish notwithstanding all it suffered from war and earthquakes; but it gradually sank down until within the last 20 years, when the European trade through Erzeroum and Trebizond has caused it once more to become one of the most populous and flourishing cities of Persia. Its Pop. is estimated at between 200,000 and 300,000 souls. It fell into the hands of the Russians in the course of their last war with Persia, but was given up by the treaty of Turkmanchai. The plain of Tabreez is 4000 feet above the sea, and for 5 months of each year it is covered with snow. At the distance of 5 stages from Tabreez is the town and district of Urumiah, the headquarters of an American mission which labours among the Nestorian Christians of Persia. There is a road hence to Bagdad.

There is an English and a Russian consulate at Tabreez, and a larger European pop. than in any other town in Persia.

There is a tolerably good horse-road from Tabreez to Teheran, the country for the whole way being bare of trees, except round an occasional stream or in the immediate neighbourhood of villages. The distance to the capital is a little less than 400 m.; and when the road has been in a bad state, travellers have taken 17 days to perform the journey. The cotton and castor-oil plants are cultivated in occasional patches for the last three-fourths of the way. Travellers pass the night in tents, one set of which should be sent on to the halting-place the night before, in order to be ready on arrival after the next day's march, which is always commenced in the cool of the morning. A small tent should like-

wise be sent on for breakfasting in, half-way to the end of the stage. In this manner travelling in Persia is not disagreeable, even at the hottest season of the year.

ROUTE 22.

TIFLIS TO TEHERAN, BY BAKÙ OR LENKORAN, AND RESHT OR ASTRABAD, ON THE CASPIAN.

Travellers wishing to embark either at Bakù or Lenkoran must take the post route to Shemakha, by way of Elizavetpol.

The road from Tiflis to ELIZAVETPOL, distant 194 v. (129 m.), is very good. The Persian name of Elizavetpol was Gunja. The posthouse is within the town, which possesses broad streets shaded with trees.

There are 12 stages between Elizavetpol and SHEMAKHA. At the 9th stage the road enters the mountains with a very abrupt ascent further on. The view from the top extends over an immense plain behind. The town of Shemakha wears a melancholy and deserted aspect. It was the capital of the province, and contained 70,000 Inhab.; but it was visited by earthquake after earthquake, and the seat of local government was transferred to Bakù on the Caspian. It is, however, noted for its wine. The ancient name of Shemakha was Mamechia.

The road from here branches into two: that to the l. leading to BAKÙ 112 v. (75 m.); that to the rt. to LENKORAN, 243 v. (162 m.) distant.

Between the middle of April and the middle of October, steamers leave Astrakhan once a fortnight for Ashuradé island, opposite Astrabad, touching at Petrofskoé, Derbend, Bakù, Lenkoran, Astera, Enzelli, and Meshedi-sir. During the other 6 months of the year the northern portion of the Caspian is frozen, and the traffic on the water is confined to the part between Bakù and Ashuradé. In this half of the year steamers run once a month between the two latter ports, calling at the intermediate points.

BAKÙ is the ancient Getara, and for a long time formed part of the dominions of the Persian kings. It was taken by Peter the Great, who surrounded it with its present wall and ditch. It subsequently again fell into the hands of the Persians, and finally became a port of the Russian empire at the beginning of this centy. It is now the seat of administration of a province. Its harbour is the best in the Caspian Sea, and it possesses the advantage of being open all the year round. It is intended to construct a rly. from this town to Poti. The Pop. of Bakù is estimated at 12,000, divided between the fortified town and the Persian quarter outside. The peninsula on which the town is placed is bare and sandy, and the fort is commanded by the adjoining hills. Bakù is celebrated for the ever-burning fires of naphtha in its neighbourhood, which are tended, not as might be supposed by fire-worshippers from Persia, but by a succession of devotees from India. Both the earth and the water near Bakù are strongly impregnated with naphtha, and when this substance is allowed to burn one of the strangest possible appearances is presented to the view. The entrance to the harbour is lighted from the *Maiden's Tower*, to which a romantic story is attached.

The route between Astrabad and Teheran is more interesting than that from Enzelli to Teheran. It may be varied in several ways, but the traveller

will always pass through beautiful mountain and forest scenery, and by places of historical interest.

For the benefit of those who prefer the land journey from Lenkoran or Resht to Teheran, which from the beginning of April to the end of October is the most economical and least fatiguing (when taken in connection with the Caspian and Volga route to St. Petersburg), we subjoin a sketch of the route.

ROUTE 23.

LENKORAN TO TEHERAN, BY LAND, VIA RESHT.

From LENKORAN, where travellers with letters of introduction to the Russian military authorities have been most hospitably received, the distance to ASTARA, on the Persian and Russian frontier, is 23 v., the road lying all the way along the sea-shore. The journey is made on horseback with an escort of Cossacks. Passports are shown at the custom-house on the stream which separates Russia from Persia.

Mules can be engaged at Astara for Resht and Kazvin. The ordinary price is a keran and a half or two kerans a day.* The distance to Enzelli is about 92 m., which is made at the rate of 3 or 3½ m. an hour. Wooded hills rise in constant succession behind and on either side of wooded valleys. Dozens of streams of considerable breadth will have to be passed. The Russian steamers on the Caspian are supplied with wood from the forests of Talish, which will be passed. A great quantity of charcoal is also prepared in those forests for the Persian and Russian markets. The coast gradually rounds off to the E., forming by its majestic sweeps a number of splendid bays. The villages along the coast are very few and far between. The accommodation in the cottages is very bad, and provisions are difficult to be obtained.

Riding for about 10 m. along a neck of land that separates the lake of Enzelli from the Caspian, the traveller will reach ENZELLI, a small town enjoying a mild climate, in which the orange-tree flourishes. It stands to the l. of the narrow passage by which the lake communicates with the sea, and which is commanded by a Persian battery that prevents steamers from entering the lake.

The lake of Enzelli, about 18 m. long by 12 in breadth, is crossed in a boat. There are several marshy islands on it, where thousands of water-fowl take refuge. The jungle is tenanted by tigers and wild boars. The river of Pir-Bazaar will be entered after a voyage of about 4 hrs. The boat is tugged up the stream to the end of the road to Resht. The 6 miles of marsh that lie to the N. of that town have taken 2½ hrs. to accomplish on horse-back in winter, when the road is almost impassable even with the small horses that are expressly trained for the work.

RESHT is the capital of Gilan, one of the 3 Caspian provinces of Persia, and was anciently inhabited by the Gelæ. The inhab. speak a language peculiar to the province, and many of them do not understand Persian. Resht is at the present day the centre of a considerable trade. Several European merchants reside in the town, as well as the consuls of England, France, and Russia. The streets, paved with small stones, are in some instances broad and

* These muleteers are generally engaged in travelling between Astara and Tabreez, by the mountainous way of Ardebeel—a journey of 7 days.

good, and the city is well shaded by the trees that grow freely within it; but as a residence, Resht is feverish and gloomy. The distance hence to Teheran is rather less than 200 m. There are ten post stages between the two points.

The road to Kazvin follows, at the end of the 1st stage, the l. bank of the Sefid-rùd, a large river that flows into the Caspian to the E. of Resht, between high mountains covered with wood. Amongst the trees are the mulberry, the walnut, the pomegranate, the fig-tree, and the ash. The chief timber-tree is the azad, and that most remarkable for beauty is the silk acacia-tree.

At MENZIL travellers ascend the northern slope of the Elburz mountains, at the summit of which a beautiful view of the vast valleys below will be obtained. From the bleak station-house at the summit of the pass a journey of about 27 m. will bring the traveller to Kazvin.

KAZVIN, like many other cities in Persia, has seen better days. From this district sprang the Sefavean kings who made Kazvin their capital. It was succeeded by Ispahan, but it was not until the capital had in turn been transferred to Teheran that Kazvin dwindled into its present insignificant condition. It was to Kazvin that the Emperor Heraclius penetrated before he turned off towards Ispahan on his second expedition into Persia. In the time of its greatness Kazvin contained a Pop. of more than 100,000 souls; but at present, although the city is the same in extent as formerly, the Inhab. do not number more than 40,000. The town stands in a spacious plain, which, although not watered artificially, is rich in gardens and cultivated land.

In the mountains near Kazvin are the ruins of the stronghold of the chief of the Assassins, known also by the appellation of "the Old Man of the Mountain." Those miscreants, Mahomedan sectaries, were governed for 160 years by a succession of chiefs, to whom they paid a complete and blind devotion. It is said in Marco Polo's Travels that youths of this sect were reported as being introduced into a large garden fitted up as far as possible with the requirements of a Moslem Paradise. They awoke in the garden after a deep sleep prolonged by drugs, and their chief taught them that they had already passed the gate of death. They held the doctrine of the transmigration of souls, and looked on their chief as the Vicar of God. His lieutenant governed the colony of Mount Libanus, so famous and formidable in the history of the Crusades. The Assassins of Persia were exterminated by Holagon Khan, the grandson of Genghis, and those of Syria by the Mamelukes.

There are 5 stages, of which the first 2 are short, between Kazvin and KERIJ, a small town or village, where there is a large palace belonging to the shah. It is situated on a broad and deep river, a portion of the water of which is conveyed by a canal to Teheran. The soil is so porous that only a seventh part of the water reaches the city; the remainder flows down to the S.E. until it is joined by the river of Jagerùd. Most of the water of these streams is employed in fertilising the districts through which they flow. The Kerij river comes out of a deep gorge in the mountains a short distance above the town. It may be traced with some difficulty up to its source in the Elburz. It affords good fishing, the trout found in it being both large and excellent. There is some shooting likewise to be had near Kerij, particularly hares and partridges. Two stages more will bring the traveller over a bleak district, having the bare Elburz mountains on one side and a low range of hills far away on the other, to

TEHERAN, the capital of Persia.

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ROUTE 24.

LONDON TO PERSIA, BY WAY OF ST. PETERSBURG.

To St. Petersburg by Rte. 1.
To Moscow by Rte. 6.
To Nijni-Novgorod by Rte. 8.
To Astrakhan by Rte. 9.

Between Astrakhan and Resht, and Astrabad in Persia, there is a service of steamers that touch at Petrofskoé, Derbend, Bakù, and Lenkoran, as already stated. The 1st-class fare from Astrakhan to Enzelli is 30 rs., not including the charge for wine and table. All the charges, however, are very moderate. The voyage occupies about 5 days.

Travellers who prefer proceeding *through Tiflis* leave the Volga at TSARITSIN, when they take the Volga-Don Railway (*vide* Rte. 18) to KALATCH, on the Don, from whence steamers navigate that river, which are in correspondence with the steamers upon the Sea of Azof, between Taganrog and Kertch, and which correspond again with the Russian Steam Navigation Company's steamers to Poti.

Instead of proceeding from Kertch to Poti by steamer, travellers can cross over from Kertch to Taman, and travel by road from Taman to Tiflis, by way of Stavropol, Vladikavkaz, and the defile of Dariel, thus traversing the chain of the Caucasus mountains. If this route is taken it would be worth while to visit Piatigorsk, celebrated for its mineral waters, situated between Stavropol and Vladikavkaz.

At Vladikavkaz there is a good hotel.

Between Vladikavkaz and Tiflis good accommodation can be obtained at the station-houses which have been recently constructed for the convenience of travellers.

There is a regular service of omnibuses between Vladikavkaz and Tiflis.

The scenery of this route is very fine; the road for a great part of the way follows the windings of the Terek torrent. At the station-house of Kazbek a magnificent view is obtained of Mount Kazbek.

ROUTE 25.

LONDON TO PEKIN, VIA ST. PETERSBURG, KIAKHTA, AND MONGOLIA.*

(*Vide Routes to St. Petersburg, Moscow, Nijni-Novgorod, and Volga.*)

[Read Michie's 'Siberian Route from Pekin to St. Petersburg,' 1865.]

Many travellers, of both sexes, have already performed the overland journey to and from Pekin by way of Kiakhta, and reported favourably on the facility with which it may be accomplished, notwithstanding even a complete ignorance of the Russian language. The summer is to be preferred for this journey, which may be performed, travelling without intermission, in about 50 days from London to Pekin.

From Nijni-Novgorod the traveller will proceed to Kazan, and thence, still by steamer, to Perm, on the river Kama, which will be reached in about a week. An hotel has been established at Perm by a steamboat company, where travellers are accommodated at a rea-

* As few, if any, English travellers will visit Siberia, until some of the Siberian railways, yet only in contemplation, shall have been opened, it is not necessary to give more than a sketch of the routes to Kiakhta. A proper description of the route, partly by rail, must be reserved for the next edition.

sonable rate. A large cannon-foundry, employing 1500 workmen, is situated at about 3 m. from the town. The scenery on the Kama is of the grandest description.

From Perm the only mode of travelling is by post. Here the traveller has to obtain a podorojna, or order for horses. Three kinds of conveyances are available: the telega, or cart without springs, which has to be changed at every station, and for which a charge of about 8*d.* is made at every stage; the kibitka, or cart (in winter a sledge) with a hood; and the tarántas, a kind of carriage on wooden springs, which admits of the traveller lying down full length, and which can be made very comfortable at night. The two latter vehicles will have to be purchased or hired at Perm, if the telega, or postal conveyance, be not accepted. A tarantas may be bought for 12*l.* to 15*l.*

Beyond Perm travellers must be provided with everything they may require on the journey in the shape of tea, coffee, sugar, wine, spirits, preserved meats, milk, &c. Most luxuries are to be procured at Irkutsk, but the traveller will do well to bring with him from England all the more modern appliances for travelling. An English saddle is of great use, and travellers are recommended to purchase a good map at St. Petersburg. In coming from China it is of course necessary to lay in a stock of provisions for a fortnight or 3 weeks.

Ekaterinburg, 364 versts from Perm, is next reached, the road being partly through the Ural Mountains, which present the most beautiful views. At the central line of the Ural stands a marble obelisk, on one side of which is engraved the word Europe, and on the other the word Asia. Ekaterinburg is a town of much importance, as the centre of the mining districts, and the seat of "The Administration of the Mines." It has 21,000 Inhab. There is a mint for copper coinage, also an establishment belonging to the Crown for cutting and polishing gems, and a steam factory superintended by an Englishman. The gold-washings in the neighbourhood should be visited. Travellers will be beset by dealers in precious stones, which may be purchased very cheap.

After two days' travelling, the town of *Tiumen*, 306 versts distant, will be reached. There is an engineering establishment here, under the management of an Englishman. Tug-steamers ply between Tiumen and Omsk, distant 327 v. by road, but, as they leave at intervals of a fortnight, the traveller to whom speed is an object will prefer the telega or tarantas. The road from hence to Omsk is generally very bad, especially in autumn. The only provisions to be obtained are milk and black bread. It sometimes takes a week to make this stage. Omsk is a town of about 18,000 Inhab., with little to interest a stranger.

Tomsk, the next large town, is 876 v. distant, and may be reached in four days. The road over the Barabinsk Steppe is good.

From Tomsk the country becomes more hilly and picturesque, the birch being almost entirely succeeded by fir-trees. As soon as the province of Yenisei is entered, the road will be found as good and well-kept as any in England.

Krasnoyarsk, 554½ v. distant, reached in 3 days, is a town on the banks of the Yenisei, pleasantly situated, and sheltered by hills of moderate elevation.

Irkutsk, the largest town in Siberia, and numbering 25,000 Inhab., is 1003 v. farther. Kansk and Nijne-Udinsk are the only towns on this stage, but villages occur every 10 or 15 miles. This highway is much frequented. Irkutsk is the seat of government of Eastern Siberia. Purchased vehicles had better be sold here, and the postal carts made use of.

Three stages beyond Irkutsk is Listvenitchnaya, the place of embarkation for the lake of Baikal (112 v. wide and 1800 v. long), which is crossed in a steamer, and from which passengers are landed in small boats. Fare, 8 rs. In winter the lake is crossed over the ice.

Two more days' travelling will bring the traveller through Verkhné-Udinsk and Selenginsk to Kiakhta, the border

town between Russia and China; the whole distance traversed from Nijni-Novgorod being about 5270 v., or 3513 miles. The charge for horses is 3 copecks per horse per verst to Tiumen, and 1½ copeck thence to Kiakhta. The post travels this distance in 27 days.

At Kiakhta the traveller will have to make his preparations for crossing the desert of Gobi. He may depend upon meeting with every protection on the part of the Russian authorities, provided he has brought letters of recommendation from St. Petersburg, which may be obtained through H.M. Embassy. It is also advisable to cause the Chinese officials at Maimachin, and other places, to be apprised of the traveller's intention of proceeding to Pekin by way of Mongolia. This should be done on leaving England, by a letter addressed to H.M. Legation in China. The courier service to Pekin is being much improved and accelerated, and will be made available to travellers, who, until now, have generally been obliged to engage camels, and to join caravans. Covered carts are almost the only vehicles to be obtained. It is customary for caravans to travel 16 hours a day, and then to come to a halt for cooking, eating, and sleeping. There is plenty of good mutton to be had on the way, but all other provisions have to be purchased either at Kiakhta or Pekin. The Mongols are most trustworthy in their transactions, and the traveller may feel in perfect safety throughout the journey. July and August are very hot months in the desert, and the beginning of October is already very cold. The journey between Kiakhta and Pekin is best performed in May.

The first part of the journey from Kiakhta is over a mountainous tract, and the desert only begins a little beyond Urga, the sacred city of the Mongols, with a Pop. of 10,000 to 12,000 lamas. Midway between this and a small Chinese town, 4 m. off, is a Russian consulate, where a cordial reception may be depended upon. There is very little water beyond Urga, and it has to be obtained from small wells some distance off the track, where the only fuel to be had is dried cow-dung. The use of money is as yet almost unknown in this part of the country; brick-tea, cut up into slices, being the token of value most recognised; but small brass buttons are highly prized. Caravans take a fortnight to travel over the bare and slightly undulating steppe of Gobi, but couriers can perform the entire journey between Kiakhta and Pekin in 12 days, and even less.

China proper is entered by a pass in the Kingan mountains, 5400 ft. above the level of the sea, very precipitous and rugged. The view is magnificent.

At Kalgan, a large town through which the great wall of China runs, the carts are abandoned for mule-litters. Two or three days may well be spent at Kalgan in exploring the monasteries in the neighbourhood. In coming from China, camels are engaged at Pekin for Kiakhta. The customary rate of hire is from 12 to 15 taels per camel, but travellers have paid as much as 45 taels for animals that only realized 3 taels a-head at Kiakhta. Several Russian mercantile firms are established at Kalgan, the members of which have been very kind to European travellers.

The day after leaving Kalgan travellers begin to ascend a rugged mountain pass, the town of Saching being reached the next day. Here travellers sleep at an inn very badly supplied with comforts. The next night may be spent at Chatavu, a fort on the inner or ancient Great Wall of China. This place is at the foot of a formidable mountain-range, the pass over which, 17 miles in length, occupies half a day, and is 20 to 25 miles from Pekin. The mountain scenery is of the grandest description, the road passing among rugged and precipitous crags. The village of Sha-ho is the next halting-place, and Pekin may be reached by an easy stage next day, the road lying through a sandy plain, on which the dust rises in clouds; and there this book must leave the traveller's hands.

KINGDOM OF POLAND.

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SECTION III.—KINGDOM OF POLAND.

INTRODUCTION.

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1.—Historical Notice.

For most English readers the history of Poland begins with Poland's misfortunes. Put aside Sobieski's great victory outside the walls of Vienna, and few Englishmen can mention any important events in Polish history prior to the first partition and the guerilla war waged by the Confederates of Bar; the second partition, followed as it was by the insurrection of Kosciusko; and the third partition, after which, for twenty years (from 1795 until 1815), the very name of Poland disappeared.

The early history of Poland, however, has been fully treated by a series of native historians. Dlugosz, or Dlugossius, his Latinised name, or Longinus, the Latin equivalent for it, begins his history from the earliest period of the Polish annals, and carries it down to the year 1480. It is written in the Latin language, as were all Polish historical and legal works until the eighteenth century. The first history of Poland in the Polish language was not composed until the reign of Stanislas Augustus, when the independent existence of the country was about to cease.

Polish history up to the time of the partition was usually divided into four periods. During the first of these Poland was governed by sovereigns of the House of Lekh; during the second by sovereigns of the House of Piast; during the third by the Jagellon dynasty; during the fourth by kings of various families.

The first period has generally been looked upon as altogether fabulous, and the second as fabulous in a great measure. But Mickiewicz the poet, and Szainocha and Moraczewski the historians, have done much to restore the credit of the early Polish legends; the former dwelling on their typical value, and assuming their substantial truth from the thoroughly Polish character of the incidents, in many of which he sees the incidents of Poland's modern history prefigured; the latter reconstructing them after comparing them with the legends of other countries, and criticising

them by the light of ancient German and Scandinavian writers, who, in treating the history of their own country, have touched upon that of Poland.

We may as well dismiss the Lekh period altogether; or if our readers wish to know something of the legend of Lekh, Tchekh, and Russ, which lies at the bottom of all Slavonian history, we may briefly mention that these three brothers started from somewhere on the Danube, each with the object of forming an independent establishment, if not of founding a state; that three eagles appearing and flying away in different directions, the omen was accepted, and the Slavonian brothers, like the eagles, parted company, each to follow his own bird wherever its flight might lead him. Russ, of course, went to Russia; Tchekh to Bohemia, the country of the Bohemians, or Tchekhs; Lekh—led by a white eagle, which afterwards became an historical symbol—to Poland, the land of those who accompanied or dwelt with Lekh. From *po-lekh*, or *po-lakh* (he was also called Lakh), the word "polak" is said to be derived. The Russians call the Poles *Polaki;* and "Polack" was the English name for a Pole in the time of Shakspeare. In the provinces, too, of ancient Poland, which are inhabited by a peasantry of Russian or Ruthenian race (Volhynia, Podolia, &c.), "Lekh" is still the name given to the inhabitants of Poland proper.

Szainocha makes the Lekhs, or Lakhs, come from Scandinavia. According to this historian, the Normans invaded Poland as well as every other northern country having a sea-coast; the word *lakh* is of Gothic origin, and signifies *socius*, companion; and the Lakhs, Lekhs, or Lechites, were a Norman brotherhood, who, establishing themselves in Poland, as the Varangian Normans established themselves in Russia, were the ancestors of the Polish nobility.

The theory propounded by the learned Szainocha is not much liked by his fellow-countrymen, who prefer to believe that the Poles, rich and poor, nobles and peasants, are all of the same stock, and that the noble or equestrian order was originally composed of all Poles who were able to serve their country on horseback; while those who had neither horses nor arms, or who for any other reason were unable or unwilling to go to war, remained at home to till the ground, and formed a class of peasantry.

The travellers of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries tell us that the Polish nobility proclaimed themselves of eastern descent; and it has been surmised by Mickiewicz, and others, that the Lekhi, or Leski, came from the Caucasus, and were of the same family as the Lesghi or Lesghians.

Various origins are assigned to the nobility of Poland; but whether or not the country was invaded or colonised by a foreign race at some prehistoric period, the foreign appears to have been completely absorbed by the indigenous race long before the date of the earliest Polish records. But the very name of Poland is of uncertain derivation; for though by most writers it is traced to Lakh and *po-lakh*, others make it proceed from *pola*, a field or plain. The Poles call the country *Polska*, the Russians *Polsha*, the Germans *Polen*, the French *Pologne* (evidently from the Latin name *Poolnia*, given to Poland by the Poles themselves); and it is just possible that the country may have been called "the country of fields or plains," while the people were known as "the people of Lekh." These are questions which

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the Poles themselves are unable to settle, and about which we need not trouble ourselves further than to note that in England we first became acquainted with them under the name of "Polacks" long before we knew them as Poles.

The Polish nobles have always been politically equal. The title of "noble" was given to every freeholder; and these "noble" proprietors were the only inhabitants who were called upon to serve in defence of the country. The peasants, without being slaves, were "assigned to the soil," and had to cultivate the nobleman's fields in return for the land allotted to them for their own use. The Crown, as in other European states during the greater part of the middle ages, was nominally elective; but in practice the Polish sovereignty may be said to have been hereditary until after the extinction of the Jagellon line. The ceremony of election took place, but until the end of the sixteenth century it amounted only to a formal recognition of the next heir.

A certain attachment to the hereditary principle was shown in the election of the first of the Jagellons, under whom in the latter part of the fourteenth century Lithuania and Poland became united under the same crown. Casimir the Great, who restrained the power of the nobility, and, by the benefits he conferred upon the peasantry, gained the name of *Rex Rusticorum*, had been succeeded by his nephew Ladislas King of Hungary, who, being a foreigner, could only ensure the possession of his throne by reinstating the nobles in all their privileges. Ladislas was the last sovereign of the Piast period; and as he left no male heir, the nobles exercised the right accorded to them, or at least specifically renewed, by Ladislas himself, of choosing his successor. Passing over the eldest daughter Maria, who was the wife of the too-powerful Emperor Sigismund, they offered the crown to Hedvige, Ladislas's second daughter, requiring, however, as an indispensable condition, that she should marry Ladislas Jagellon, Grand Duke of Lithuania. With this personal tie the influence of Poland upon Lithuania began. The political fusion between the two states did not take place until nearly two centuries later (1569), when the connexion between Lithuania and Poland became as intimate as that between Scotland and England after the Act of Union. The accession of Ladislas Jagellon to the throne of Poland would correspond in our history to that of James VI. of Scotland to the English throne.

During the Jagellon period the form of the Polish Government became defined. The power of the King was limited by that of two Chambers,—the Senate, composed of the superior members of the clergy and the chief dignitaries of state, and a Chamber of Delegates, in which sat the representatives of the nobles or freeholders, and those of the burgesses of certain privileged towns.

But each sovereign, on ascending the throne, had to make fresh concessions, and the royal power gradually diminished until, on the death of Sigismund Augustus, the last of the Jagellons, all title to the crown from hereditary right was formally abrogated at a general diet, and the most absolute freedom of election proclaimed. At the same time a charter of immunities was drawn up, a ratification of which it was determined to exact from the next sovereign elected to the throne. By this charter all the privileges ever conceded by previous sovereigns were renewed or confirmed; and it

was clearly established that the king was to be chosen by the whole body of the nobility, gentry, or freeholders; and that, in case of his infringing the laws and privileges of the nation, his subjects should be absolved from their oaths of allegiance.

While Poland thus was strengthened territorially by its union with Lithuania—the two now forming but one state—it was at the same time weakened politically by the limitations imposed on the central power, and by the extreme precautions taken for rendering it unstable. Throughout the Jagellon period the kings, in spite of their election, always styled themselves "heirs" of the kingdom of Poland; and the rule observed, though not admitted as a theory, was to look for a successor to the next heir. After the death of Sigismund Augustus, however, the Polish nobility—prompted, perhaps, to some extent by jealousy of the powerful magnates of Lithuania, where until the union with Poland the feudal system was maintained—insisted on all nobles or freeholders in Lithuania, as in Poland, being declared on a precise equality, and therefore equally competent to give direct votes at the kingly elections. The nobility of the Lithuano-Polish state, voting in a mass, made a bad beginning. They went to France for their sovereign, and Henry of Valois, afterwards Henry III., was elected to the throne, on engaging to pay an annual pension to the state from the revenues of France. Now, also, the practice of bribing the electors individually—unheard of when the right of choice rested with the diet—was introduced, and helped materially to prepare the way for the downfall of Poland. It was not, however, until about a century afterwards that signs of decay became generally apparent. At the time of the election of Henry of Valois there was at least religious toleration in Poland—far more, indeed, than in any other country; and the necessity of recognising the principle of religious liberty was specially impressed upon the new monarch, whose brother, it was not forgotten, had directed the massacre of St. Bartholomew's day.

But with the entrance of the Jesuits into Poland came intolerance; and one of the reasons which led the Cossacks of the Ukraine, in the middle of the seventeenth century, to solicit Russian protection, was the inferior position in which their Greek religion was placed as compared with that of Roman Catholic subjects. Poland and Muscovy had waged war for two centuries with varied success, when in the reign of Alexis Mikhailovitch, Peter the Great's father, the whole of the Polish territory east of the Dnieper—now known as Little Russia—passed under the protection of the Tsar, and after the insurrection of Mazeppa, in the reign of Peter, was finally incorporated with the Russian empire. With Little Russia the city of Kief, on the Polish side of the Dnieper, became lost to Poland. Sobieski, who saved Vienna for the Austrians, could not keep Kief for the Poles. This sacred city, from which the Russians received their faith before either Poland or Russia had become regularly organised states, was now looked upon as the religious metropolis of the numerous Polish subjects belonging to the Eastern Church; and when the first partition of Poland took place, in 1772, the portion which fell to Russia contained numbers of inhabitants who were already connected with that country by religious ties.

On the misfortunes of Poland during the partitions it is not our intention to dwell. As to the distribution of territory, it was observed at the time

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that the most extensive portion went to Rússia, the most populous to Austria, and the most commercial to Prussia.

Prussian Poland, after the third partition (1795), extended beyond the Vistula, and included Warsaw. The ancient Polish capital was placed under a Prussian administration, and vain endeavours were made to Germanise it. After the battles of Eylau and Friedland (1806), the Poles having risen against their German masters, and a French army having entered Warsaw, Prussian Poland became nominally free; and though under French influence, and required to furnish troops to the French army, it was at least governed constitutionally, and through a Polish administration. This new Polish state (formed entirely out of the provinces seized by Prussia at the three partitions) was called the Duchy of Warsaw. The King of Saxony was the sovereign; and the governing power was vested in the Sovereign and two Chambers,—a Senate and a House of Representatives.

At the great settlement of 1815 the Emperor Alexander proposed to form the whole of ancient Poland into a constitutional monarchy under the Russian crown; but it was ultimately arranged that Galicia (which in 1809 had been annexed to the Duchy of Warsaw) should be given back to Austria, Posen to Prussia, and that the rest of the Napoleonic duchy should be formed into a constitutional state with the Russian Emperor as King. The provinces acquired by Catherine II. at the partition of the eighteenth century remained incorporated with the Russian empire, but were not subjected to a Russian administration until after the insurrection of 1830.

The little kingdom of Poland of the present day, with its five million of inhabitants, was governed from 1815 to 1830 in accordance with the arrangements of 1815, having its Diet, its national administration, and its national army of thirty thousand men. After the insurrection of 1830 the constitution was withdrawn, the national army abolished, the national language proscribed in the public offices, and the administration, as far as possible, Russianised; Poles, however, being still appointed to the minor offices. The Polish universities were closed.

After the accession of the Emperor Alexander I. several reforms were introduced into Poland, and Polish was re-established as the language of the administration and of public instruction. Demonstrations, however, in favour of national independence were commenced; and for two years before the last insurrection broke out Warsaw was the scene of constant agitation. In the mean while several concessions were made by the government. The administration was completely separated from that of Russia; elective district and municipal councils and a council of state were formed. The re-opening of the universities and of additional gymnasiums, and the establishment of schools for the peasantry, preceded the arrival of the Grand Duke Constantine in Warsaw, accompanied by the Marquis Wielopolski, as chief of the civil administration. From the Marquis Wielopolski downwards every official in Poland was now a Pole; but the administrative and other reforms had little effect in quelling the excitement; and in January, 1863, another insurrection broke out in Warsaw, the lamentable effects of which will long be felt.

The Polish language has now been entirely superseded by Russian in all

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educational establishments, as well as in all public offices; and all official correspondence even with the Voits, must be in Russian.

The Code Napoléon is to be superseded by the Russian Code with some modifications.

The insurrection which broke out in 1863 had long been meditated by the "red," or extreme party, while the "white," or moderate party, were opposed to it as inexpedient and imprudent. The rising was precipitated by an arbitrary conscription, or proscription, by means of which it was proposed to carry off some thousands of the more violently disaffected, for the purpose of enrolling them in the Russian army.

For a time the landed proprietors, and the moderate party generally, held aloof from the movement. Gradually, however, it extended; and when it was known that the Western Powers were about to address representations to Russia on behalf of the Poles, all classes in Poland, with the exception of the uneducated, indifferent peasantry, united for the purpose of maintaining the insurrection. On the 10th of March, at the solicitation of the "white" party and "red" party combined, Gen. Langiewicz, formerly an officer in the Prussian army, proclaimed himself dictator; but his dictatorship lasted scarcely a fortnight. Having crossed the frontier of Poland to enter Galicia (with the view, it is believed, of re-entering Poland at another point), he was arrested by the Austrians, and thrown into a fortress, where he was detained until long after the termination of the insurrection. After the fall of Langiewicz the insurrection assumed a guerilla character, and no more large detachments were formed. A number of bands, of from 100 to 1000 men, appeared in Poland and Lithuania. There was also a partial rising (soon put down) in Volhynia. The struggle, hopeless from the moment it was seen that no foreign power had any intention of assisting the Poles, lasted, nevertheless, until the spring of 1864, when the Austrians placed Galicia in a state of siege, and proceeded to deliver up to the Russians all insurgents who sought refuge on their territory. The last important body of insurgents was under the orders of General Bossak (the pseudonym adopted by Count Hauke, formerly a colonel in the Russian army), who, from his head-quarters in the mountains near Cracow, commanded three detachments, numbering altogether some 2000 men. After having maintained his position for six months, "Bossak" broke up his force, and retired to Galicia, whence he afterwards made his way to Switzerland.

After Langiewicz and "Bossak" the principal leaders in this insurrection were Frankowski, a student (wounded, taken prisoner, and executed); Padlewski, formerly an officer in the Russian army (wounded, taken prisoner, and executed); Jezioranski, formerly an officer in the Prussian army (still living); Lelewel, a mechanical engineer from Warsaw (killed in action); Narbutt, a Lithuanian proprietor, formerly in the Russian army (killed in action); Sierakowski, formerly an officer in the Russian army (mortally wounded in action, and hanged by Mouravieff when on the point of death); Cieszkowski, chief of a band near Malogoszcza, wounded in action, but killed in bed next day; "Kruk," formerly an officer in the Russian army (still living); Taczanowski, formerly an officer in the Prussian army (still living); and the Abbé Mackiewicz (taken prisoner and hanged).

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2.—Statistics.

The Kingdom of Poland, as constituted by the Congress of Vienna, comprises an extent of 2320 geographical square miles. In 1861 the population amounted to 4,910,608 souls, consisting of 2,375,312 men and 2,535,296 women, which in 1863 had increased to 4,986,230 souls.

Classified according to religion the population in 1856 was composed of—

Roman Catholics	3,767,977
Uniates	219,655
Protestants	289,583
Moravian Brethren	2,000
Menonites	1,399
Russo-Greek Church	5,100
Odinovertsi, a sect of the Russian Church	551
Staroveri, Russian Sectaries, who emigrated into Poland in the 13th century, at the time of the religious persecutions in Russia, and formed separate colonies	3,937
Jews	617,891
Mahometans	307
Gipsies	188

The nationalities of which the population of the kingdom of Poland is composed are officially grouped as follows :—

Poles	3,420,000
Ruthenians (in the province of Lublin). This race also predominates in all the southern provinces of Russia as well as in the eastern part of Galicia in Austria	215,000
Russians	9,000
Lithuanians (in the province of Augustovo). They also predominate in the provinces of Kowno, Wilna, and Courland	220,000
Germans, partly established in towns, and partly in agricultural colonies scattered over the whole country	300,000
Jews, exclusively inhabiting towns	600,000
The inhabitants of the 22,613 villages of the kingdom (grouped in 3083 rural communes) amount to	3,690,967
The inhabitants of the 453 towns number	1,219,641

3.—Social Condition.

When Poland was independent the law divided the population of the country into three classes—the nobles, the citizens, and the rustics. The clergy, although enjoying all the immunities secured to them by the canon law, did not constitute a separate class. The Jews did not belong to any of the classes recognized by the law, but had special rights and obligations. They were only assimilated to the other classes, with some restrictions, in 1861, when the country enjoyed a certain amount of political freedom. Under the old Republic, the nobility exclusively possessed political rights; they alone

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participated in the elections to the Diets; and they alone could hold landed property or public offices. The citizens could only hold real property in towns. They enjoyed the municipal franchises granted to each town by its Charter of Election. The rustics were *adscripti glebæ* to the extent that the rural communes were obliged to occupy all the peasant farms, and that the peasant could not leave his lord until all such farms were occupied. But they also possessed the right of occupying any farms that were vacant. Strictly speaking, serfdom did not exist; but there was a kind of personal dependence, aggravated by the extensive privileges of the nobles, and by the impotence of the government. In lieu of rent the peasant holders of farms worked for their landlords a certain number of days in the week, determined by law. A tendency to exchange that labour for a money payment which had begun to manifest itself was interrupted by the partition of Poland. After that event the social condition of the country was modified according to the institutions that existed in the countries which shared Poland. The condition of the peasants became more oppressive; the nobility lost almost all their political rights, and the towns their municipal autonomy. All serfage was however abolished in 1807, when the Duchy of Warsaw was constituted. The right of holding landed property and government offices was bestowed on all classes of society alike, with the exception of the Jews; the nobles only retaining the right of appointing a certain number of the members of the Chamber of Deputies. But as a necessary consequence of the liberation of the peasant from all attachment to the glebe, the landed proprietors claimed, without any sanction of the law, the entire possession of all the lands formerly held by the *adscripti glebæ*. The relations between the peasants and the proprietors became free; that is to say, that the holding of farms, and the amount and the mode of the rent, were left to amicable adjustment. With a few exceptions old relations were continued voluntarily and by mutual agreement. The peasants retained possession of their farms, which then numbered 240,000; and continued to work in the fields of their landlords the number of days previously agreed upon. These liabilities in labour were gradually converted into money payments. It was only in 1846 that the law interposed to prevent any change in existing relations. The proprietors could no longer either take back the farms from the peasants or raise their rents; while the peasants retained the right of leaving their holdings. Since, by that measure, the land question could no longer be settled gradually at the convenience of the parties interested, and with their free consent, the necessity of regulating it in a definitive manner by law became evident, and gave rise in 1859 and 1861 to a series of ukazes, of which the provisions could only have been applied slowly. An insurrection broke out in 1863. In order to interest the peasants in the movement, its chiefs promised them the gratuitous freehold of the lands they occupied, and proposed to indemnify the proprietors at the expense of the government which they desired to restore. In 1864 the Russian Government seized the same weapon in order to suppress the insurrection. All the property held by the peasants was gratuitously bestowed upon them, and even servants became proprietors of the dwellings which they occupied. According to this new settlement, the intersection of fields by the property of others was perpetuated, as well as the labour in the fields and forests of

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the landlord owed by the rural communes. The Government promised to indemnify, to a certain extent, the landed proprietors who had been deprived of a considerable part of their fortunes. The last settlement reintroduced a class of peasants distinct from that of the citizens and nobles—a distinction that has not existed since 1807. The citizens have long since lost their most precious franchise, that of municipal self-government. The mayors are appointed by the Crown, and it is only a few towns that have elective municipal councils since 1861. The nobles have only retained certain privileges with regard to military service, and the substitution, in criminal matters, of exile to Siberia, where corporal punishment would be otherwise inflicted.

4.—Political Administration.

The kingdom of Poland is governed by a Namiestnik, or Lieutenant of the Emperor, who is at the same time ex-officio Commander of the Forces in Poland; the attributes and powers of the "Namiestnikate" are, however, very different from those possessed by Prince Paskiewitch, and it is highly probable that in the course of time the post itself will be abolished.

The Government of Poland may be said to be in a transition state: all the so-called autonomic institutions of the country have been swept away, and every department has been placed during the last two years under the corresponding offices, or bodily merged in the Departments at St. Petersburg, while every Pole either has been, or will be, dismissed from Government employment, unless prepared to embrace the Greek faith.

Since the late insurrection a "Committee of Reorganization" has been in existence at Warsaw, which began with the questions involved by the changes in the condition of the peasants, and has gradually usurped a considerable part in the direction of the government of the country. The Namiestnik is President of this committee, but his position when in the committee is scarcely more than "primus inter pares," and all questions and measures are subsequently submitted to the Section or Committee for Polish Affairs at St. Petersburg.

The whole policy of the Government is bent on extinguishing all remembrance of a separate nationality in Poland, and it will speedily be reduced to precisely the same state, as regards laws, government, and institutions, as any other Russian province.

Poland is divided into ten Governments, each provided in miniature with the complete machinery of Government: the Governors report direct to St. Petersburg, and select their own officials, but they owe a distinct allegiance to the Namiestnik, who exercises a supervision over the whole kingdom, and is responsible for everything which takes place.

The seats of the ten Governments are Warsaw, Kalisch, Pietrokow, Radom, Kielce, Lublin, Siedlce, Plozk, Lomza, and Suwalki.

The rural communes are administrated by Mayors, called *Voit*. Until the year 1864 the Government was bound to appoint these functionaries from amongst the landed proprietors of the commune. Since then, however, they have been elected by the peasants by universal suffrage.

The landed proprietors and the priests have not the right of voting at such elections. All the towns are governed by Burgomasters appointed by the Government. The most important towns enjoy the privilege of having elective municipal councils, which assist the Burgomasters in the discharge of their duties. This system has been applied up to the present time to 16 towns out of 453. Justice is administered in the towns by the Burgomasters, and in the villages by the Magistrates (*Voit gmini*), assisted by rural tribunals composed of peasants. The inferior courts thus constituted can sentence to eight days' imprisonment, and deliver final verdicts in civil suits to the extent of 50 rubles. The higher Judicial Instances are 80 Judges of the Peace, and as many Tribunals of Correctional Police, 9 Civil Tribunals, 1 Commercial Tribunal, 17 Criminal Courts, and a Court of Appeal, which takes cognizance of civil, commercial, and criminal matters. There are moreover 2 departments of the Senate, forming part of the Senate of the Empire; of which one acts as a final Court of Appeal in civil suits, the other in criminal cases. The proceedings in all these courts are public and oral. A commission has been appointed with the object of reforming the organisation and mode of procedure of these courts.

There are in addition various commissions sitting for the investigation of political offences, whose sittings, acts, and even existence, may be said to be almost secret.

5.—Agriculture, Industry, and Commerce.

Agriculture is pursued in the kingdom of Poland on more than 25,000 large farms, of the extent of 200 to 1500 acres, belonging to nearly 8000 landed proprietors, and on more than 240,000 peasant farms, seldom exceeding 40 acres of land. The peasants produce almost nothing for exportation. Large proprietors generally work their own farms, and very rarely let them. The rent of a farm seldom exceeds 10 shillings per acre. Many Englishmen have realized considerable sums of money by farming, although they all commenced with very small capitals. Wheat and wool are principally produced for exportation. Large crops of potatoes are raised for the distillation of spirits, as well as beet-root for the manufacture of sugar. Clover grows in perfection. Wood for building purposes is also a great item of exportation. The fir-tree (*pinus silvestris*) and the oak (*quercus robur*) are of very superior quality.

The manufacture of spirits from potatoes and grain is most widely pursued. There are more than 2000 distilleries of brandy. The excise duties which they pay amount to more than 100 per cent. of the value of the produce. The branches of industry next in importance are brewing, the manufacture of sugar from beet-root, cotton-spinning, calico-printing, cloth-weaving, and the manufacture of iron and zinc. Most of the iron and zinc mines and works belong to the Government. They are chiefly situated in the province of Radom, and some on the frontier of Silesia. Others again, between Radom and Kieltse, produce iron, which is smelted with charcoal, and which is not inferior to the best iron from Siberia.

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The state of agriculture and of industry indicates the principal articles of trade. The custom-houses of the kingdom of Poland are united with those of the empire of Russia. The trade between the two countries is free, excepting in the items of spirits, salt, and tobacco, which are monopolized, and burdened with heavy excise duties. Trade is promoted by the State Bank of Poland, a deposit, loan, discount, and emission Bank. A Land Securities Company (*Crédit Foncier*), based on the mutual guarantee of the landed proprietors, emitting bonds bearing 4 per cent. interest in specie, guaranteed by the Government, facilitates the transfer of property by the liquidation of mortgages. The law of mortgage is extremely well regulated in Poland. A State Insurance Office against fire and against epidemics among cattle, as well as for the insurance of life, renders very important services to the country. There is an Exchange at Warsaw with sworn brokers, where a considerable business is done in drafts on Odessa. There is also a Tribunal of Commerce. The commercial law of the kingdom, and the judicial procedure in matters of commerce, are exactly the same as in France. The commercial interests of foreign States are protected by Consuls General and Consuls resident at Warsaw.

6.—Posting.

The high roads are not numerous. Their entire length in 1860 amounted to 4000 versts. They are becoming more numerous since their construction has been confided to committees chosen from among the inhabitants of the districts interested in them. The most important highways are losing their importance, being supplanted by railways. Uncomfortable coaches run from Warsaw by way of Radom to Kieltse; from Warsaw by way of Lublin to Zamoscz; from Warsaw by Brest-Litevski to Moscow; from Warsaw by Pultusk to Suvalki; from Warsaw to the fortress of Novogeorgievsk or Modlin; and from Brest-Litefski to Kief. On the post-roads where coaches do not yet run, a britshka or open cart without springs is used by travellers. Post-horses are to be obtained for private carriages or for post-carriages. No *Padorojna* is required as in Russia, but it is necessary to produce a passport. Post-horses cost five copecks per horse per verst. The charge for an open post-carriage without springs is one copeck per verst. The coachman receives drink-money at the rate of one copeck per verst for each horse. In short, travellers who leave the lines of railway, and are unprovided with a good carriage, will meet with very little comfort; nor will any good inns or places of refreshment be found, even in the small country towns.

7.—Language.

The Polish language belongs to the north-west group of the Slavic division of Indo-European tongues. Its principal dialects, though not materially differing from each other, are those of Masovia, Little Poland and Galicia, Lithuania, and Great Poland, besides the more degenerate Silesian. The alphabet consists of the following letters:—

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a (short Italian *a*).
ą (French *on*).
b, b′ (soft like English *by*, both consonant).
c (*tz*) ć (*tch*, very soft, cz (*tch*), ch (*kh*. Ger. *ch*).
d (short Italian).
e (short Italian, é (compressed as in *yes*) ę (Fr. in).
f, g hard.
h, i short Italian.
j (*y* consonant).
k (hard).
ł (very hard), l (It. *gli*).
m, n hard.
ń (Fr. *gn*).
o (short It.), ó (compressed, approaching *u*).
p, ṕ (soft like *py*, both consonant).
r, rz (Fr. *rj* in one).
s, s′ (*sh* very soft), sz (*sh*).
t, u (short Ital.).
w (*v*).
x
y (resembling the Ger. *ü*).
z, ż (Fr *j*), ź (Fr. *j*, very soft).

I serves to soften various consonants, replacing the ′: *drob′*, little poultry, gen. *drobiu*; *żyć*, to live, *zycie*, life; *koń*, horse, gen. *konia*; *wies′*, village, gen. *wsi*. The accent, except in foreign words and in compounds, is constantly on the penultimate: *rōdak*, countryman, gen. *rodāka*, dat. *rodakowi*. As in Latin, there is no article: *cnota*, virtue, a virtue, the virtue. There are seven cases of declension, nominative, genitive, dative, accusative, vocative, instrumental (*mieczem*, by or with the sword), and locative (after certain prepositions, as *w Bogu*, in God). The forms of declension depend upon the termination, the gender, and the kind, words of the same termination denoting persons, animals, and lifeless objects having in the masculine several different forms. The gender of nouns is mostly determined by the termination. There are three genders for nouns, adjectives, pronouns, verbs, and participles. The comparative degree is formed by the syllable *szy* (nom. mas. sing.), the superlative by *naj* and *szy*. The verb is exceedingly rich in forms, serving to express frequency, intensity, inception, duration, and other modes of action or being. The formatives consist chiefly of prepositions and other particles, as in German. Diminutives, denominatives, and other derivatives are abundant. Compounds are rare. The words of a sentence can be arranged almost as freely as in Latin, misunderstanding being precluded by the distinctness of the formative terminations. In flexibility, richness, power, and harmony, the Polish is hardly excelled by any other language of Europe; its grammatical structure is fully developed and firmly established; its orthography precise and perfect. The principal grammars are by Kopczynski, Mrongovius, Bandtke, and Muczkowski (Cracow, 1845); the principal dictionaries by Linde and Trojanski (Posen, 1835-46).

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8.—Words and Phrases.

The emperor	*Tsésazh.**	A courtyard	*Dzyedzinyiets.* / *Podvizhé.*
The empress	*Tsésazhova.*		
The crown prince	*Tsésazhévitch.*	A villa	*Villa.*
A grand duke	*Vielki Ksionzhé.*	A room	*Pokòi.*
A prince	*Ksionzhé.*	A chemist's	*Aptèka.*
A count	*Hrabia.*	A parade-ground	*Plats-paradni.*
A noble	*Shlakhtsits.*	A barrack	*Shalass.*
The lord	*Pàn.*	A fort	*Fortetsa.*
Sir or Mr.	*Pàn.*	A bridge	*Most.*
The head of a village	*Sultis.*	A river	*Zheka.*
An employé	*Uzhendnik.*	A village	*Vyèsi.*
A peasant	*Vlostsianin.* / *Khllop.*	A road	*Droga.*
		A hill	*Gùra.*
A policeman	*Politsiant.*	The bath-house	*Laznia.*
A blacksmith	*Koval.*	A post station	*Statsya potchtowa.*
A drojky	*Dorozhka.*	The great bazaar	*Gluvni rinek.*
A coachman	*Stangrèt.*	The Exchange	*Guielda.*
A postilion	*Potchtilion.*	English Ambassador	*Possel Angyelski.*
A waiter	*Pzhevodnik.*	English Consul	*Konsul Angyelski.*
A porter (swiss)	*Shvaïtsar.*	To write	*Pissatsi.*
„ (carrier)	*Tragazh.*	Paper	*Papyér.*
„ (house)	*Strùzh.*	Ink	*Atrament.*
A water-carrier	*Vodovoz.*	Pen	*Piuro.*
A foreigner	*Tsudzoziemiets.*	Pencil	*Olùwek.*
Chief city	*Stolitsa.*	To eat	*Yestsi.*
A town	*Miasto.*	To drink	*Pitsi.*
A street	*Ulitsa.*	To breakfast	*Yestsi snyadanié.*
A cross-street	*Ulitchka.*	Breakfast	*Snyadanié.*
A square	*Plats.*	To dine	*Yestsi obyad.*
A market	*Rinek.*	Dinner	*Obyad.*
A row of shops	*Zhond sklepikuf.*	To sup	*Yestsi kolatsyon.*
A shop	*Sklepik.*	Supper	*Kolatsya.*
A quay	*Nadbzhèzhé.*	A portion	*Portsia.*
A gateway	*Brama.*	Soup	*Zupa.*
Outer door	*Vkhud.*	An ice	*Lodi.*
An island	*Vispa.*	A roast	*Pyètchènia.*
A garden	*Ogrùd.*	Beef	*Volovina.*
A field	*Polé.*	Veal	*Tsyèlentsina.*
A cathedral	*Katèdra.*	Mutton	*Baranina.*
A church	*Kostsiùll.*	Cutlets	*Kotleti.*
A belfry	*Dzvonnitsa.*	Beefsteak	*Bifshtik.*
A cemetery	*Tsmentazh.*	Fish	*Riba.*
A monastery	*Klashtor.*	Ham	*Shinka.*
A palace	*Palats.*	A fowl	*Kura.*
An hotel	*Hotel, zatazd.*	A chicken	*Kurtché.*
A restaurant	*Restaùratsia.* / *Traktyernya.*	A hare	*Zayonts.*
		A partridge	*Kuropatva.*
A house	*Dom.*	Hazel grouse	*Yazhonbek.*

* The words are written here as they should be pronounced, not as they are spelt. The same sounds have been given to the letters as in the Russian vocabulary.

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Blackcock	*Tsyetzhev.*
Capercailzie	*Glushets.*
Potatoes	*Kartofel.*
Peas	*Grokh.*
Cucumbers	*Ogurki.*
Pears	*Grushki.*
Apples	*Yablka.*
Nuts	*Orzhèkhi.*
White bread	*Bulka.*
Black bread	*Khleb.*
Pancakes	*Bliny.*
Cheese	*Syr.*
Butter	*Maslo.*
Eggs	*Yaya.*
Cream	*Smyetanka.*
Milk	*Mlèko.*
Wine	*Vino.*
Corn brandy	*Vudka.*
Beer	*Pivo.*
Coffee	*Kava.*
Tea	*Herbata.*
Sugar	*Tsukyer.*
Water	*Vodà.*
A glass of water	*Shklanka vody.*
Hot water	*Gorontsa vodà.*
Cold water	*Zimna vodà.*
Salt	*Sul.*
Pepper	*Piepzh.*
Vinegar	*Otset.*
Mustard	*Mushtarda.*
A trunk	*Kuffèr.*
Portmanteau	*Tlomok.*
Travelling-bag	*Vorek podruzhni.*
Box or case	*Paka.*
A tea-urn	*Samovar.*
A tea-pot	*Herbatnitchka.*
A pail	*Vyadro.*
A bottle	*Butèlka.*
A glass	*Shklanka.*
A cup	*Filizhanka.*
A wine-glass	*Kyelishèk.*
A plate	*Talèzh.*
A knife	*Nuzh.*
A fork	*Vidèlets.*
A spoon	*Lizhka.*
A table	*Stul.*
A bed	*Postsyèl.*
A stove	*Pyets.*
Fire	*Ogien.*
A light (candle)	*Sviyètsa.*
A napkin	*Servèta.*
A duster	*Stsyerka.*
A hat	*Kapelush.*
A fur cloak	*Shuba.*
A pair of boots	*Buti.*
A bath	*Kompyèl.*
A washhand-basin	*Myednitsa.*
A towel	*Rentshnek.*
Soap	*Mydlo.*
A dressing-gown	*Schlafrock.*
A boat	*Ludka.*
A carriage	*Karèta.*
A cart	*Britchka.*
A wheel	*Kolo.*
The pole	*Dyshèl.*
The wooden arch	*Dugà.*
A cord	*Povruz.*
A horse	*Koni.*
Horses	*Konyè.*
Hay	*Syano.*
Straw	*Sloma.*
A book	*Ksyonzhka.*
A snow-storm	*Zavyerukha.*
Ice	*Lud.*
Half	*Pul, polova.*
A quarter	*Chetvierti.*
Great	*Duzhi.*
Little	*Mali.*
Beautiful	*Pyenkni* (fem. *Pyenkna.*)
Old	*Stari* (fem. *ra*).
New	*Novi* (fem. *va*).
Yes	*Tak, tak yest.*
No	*Nye.*
Good, very well	*Dobzhé.*
Not good, not well	*Zlyé.*
Bring	*Pzhenyès.*
For	*Dla.*
More	*Vyentseï.*
Less	*Mniyeï.*
That	*Tô.*
Enough	*Dosits.*
Not enough	*Nye dosits.*
Too long	*Za dlugo.*
Give	*Dai.*
Give me	*Dai mi.*
Give us	*Dai nam.*
Now	*Tèraz.*
It cannot be done	*Nye mozhna.*
Do better	*Zrub lèpyeï.*
Father	*Ottsyèts.*
Mother	*Matka.*
Brother	*Brat.*
Sister	*Syostra.*

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DIALOGUES.

Good day.	*Dzyèni dobri.*
Good night.	*Dobra nots.*
Good bye.	*Zhègnam.*
If you please.	*Proshen, yesli laska.*
Thank you.	*Dzyenkuyen.*
Here.	*Davaï!*
Who is there?	*Kto tam?*
Come here.	*Puidz tù.*
Hallo! here.	*Khe! shukhaï!*
I come directly.	*Zaraz pzhyïden.*
I hear and obey.	*Slukham.*
Directly.	*Zaraz.*
Let us go (on foot).	*Pudzyemi.*
Let us go (in a carriage).	*Poyedzyem.*
Go on.	*Idz pretch.*
Drive gently.	*Volno.*
Never mind; or nothing.	*Tô nits.*
Hurry quick.	*Prendzei.*
Drive faster.	*Yedz prendzi.*
Have a care.	*Ostrozhnye.*
Give room, give place.	*Zdrogi.*
To the right.	*Na pravo.*
To the left.	*Na levo.*
Go further on.	*Yedz daleï.*
Drive home.	*Do domu.*
Stop.	*Stuï.*
Tell me.	*Proshen mi povièdzyets.*
What is it?	*Tsô tô yest?*
How do they call it?	*Yak tô syen naziva?*
What does it cost?	*Tsô tô koshtuyè?*
How much the arshin?	*Po tchemù arshin?*
How much the pound?	*Po tchemù funt?*
It is dear.	*Tô drôgô.*
It is much.	*To duzho.*
It is cheap.	*To tanyo.*
Can you give change?	*Tchi mojzhé dats reshten?*
I don't know.	*Nye vièm.*
Not wanted.	*Nye potzhèba.*
I won't have.	*Nye khtsen.*
Is it ready?	*Tchi gotov?*
Set the tea-urn.	*Podaï proshen samovar.*
Give us a spoon.	*Podaï proshen lyzhken.*
What's to be done?	*Tso teraz robits?*
What's o'clock?	*Ktura godzina?*
In how many hours?	*Za ile godzin?*
Is it possible?	*Tchi to bits mozhè?*
Where is the inn?	*Gdzyé traktyernya?*
How many versts?	*Vyèlè vyorst?*
Where is the landlord?	*Gdzyé gospodazh—gdzyé pan?*
I will pass the night here.	*Ya khtsen tutaï pjzhenotsovats.*
When do you start?	*Kyedi Pan veyèdzyè?*
To-day.	*Dzis.*

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To-morrow.	*Yutro.*
In an hour.	*Za godzinen.*
It is time to be off.	*Pora yèhats.*
Which is the way to ——?	*Kturendi droga do ——?*
Pray show me the way.	*Poshen pokazats mi droguen.*
What kind of a road is it?	*Yaka tô dróga?*
Are the horses to?	*Tshi yuj zapjzhenjzhono?*
What is it to pay for them?	*Tso syen nalèzhi?*
Drink money.	*Trinkgeld, na vudken.*
I will give you drink money.	*Ya dam na vudken.*
I will not give you drink money.	*Ya nye dam na vudken.*
What station is it?	*Yaka to statsia?*
How long do we stop?	*Yak dlugo syen zatzhimuye?*
Where is the refreshment-room?	*Gdzyè yest buffèt?*
Where is the W. C.?	*Gdzyè yest prèvèt.*
Where is the telegraph-office?	*Gdzyè tèlègraf?*
Where is the luggage?	*Gdzyè pakunki?*

Names of the Months, &c.

January	*Stitshèn.*	Wednesday	*Sroda.*
February	*Luti.*	Thursday	*Tchvartek.*
March	*Mazhets.*	Friday	*Pyontek.*
April	*Kvyètsyèn.*	Saturday	*Sobota.*
May	*Maï.*	Sunday	*Nyèdzyèla.*
June	*Tshervyets.*	Winter	*Zima.*
July	*Lipyets.*	Summer	*Lato.*
August	*Syerpyen.*	A year	*Rok.*
September	*Vzhèsyèn.*	A month	*Myesyonts.*
October	*Pazdezyernik.*	A week	*Tydzyèn.*
November	*Listopad.*	A day	*Dzyèn.*
December	*Grudzyen.*	An hour	*Godzina.*
Monday	*Ponyèdzalek.*	Half an hour	*Pulgodziny.*
Tuesday	*Vtorek.*		

The Numerals.

1. *Yedèn.*
2. *Dva.*
3. *Tshi.*
4. *Tshtèri.*
5. *Pyents.*
6. *Shèsts.*
7. *Syedèm.*
8. *Osyèm.*
9. *Dzyèvyents.*
10. *Dzyèsyents.*
11. *Yedèn-nastsyé.*
12. *Dva-nastsyé.*

And so on, always adding *nastsyé* to each number, up to

20. *Dva-dzyèstsya.*
21. *Dva-dzyèstsya yedèn.*
22. *Dva-dzyèstsya dva.*

And so on, always adding the unit up to ten; and then

30. *Tshidzyèstsi.*
40. *Tchterdzyèstsi.*
50. *Pyents-dzyesyont.*
60. *Shèsts-dzyèsyont.*
70. *Syedèm-dzyèsyont.*
80. *Osyèm-dzyèsyont.*
90. *Dzyevyents-dzyèsyont.*
100. *Sto.*
500. *Pyents sèt.*
1000. *Tisyonts.*

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9.—Literature.

It has already been mentioned in the Historical Notice that until towards the end of the eighteenth century the Polish historians wrote almost exclusively in the Latin language. Poland has also produced more than one poet whose habitual literary language was the Latin. The sermons of one of her finest preachers (Skarga—end of sixteenth and beginning of seventeenth century) have been translated into French. The best available account of Polish literature, ancient and modern, for readers in the West of Europe, is to be found in Mickiewicz's lectures, entitled 'Cours de Littérature Slave.' Mickiewicz's poems have been translated into French by his fellow-countryman, Christian Ostrowski. Mickiewicz, Krasinski, and Bogdan Zaleski, the three greatest poets of modern Poland, all died in exile since 1855. Mickiewicz was a native of Lithuania, Krasinski of the kingdom of Poland, Bogdan Zaleski of the Ukraine. Lelewel, one of the most learned historians of Poland, and a leading member of the democratic party in the Polish emigration, died at Paris in 1861. Szainocha, a less political and more impartial historian than Lelewel, whose labours (which have cost him his sight) throw great light on the origin of Poland and the Polish nobility, lives at Lemberg (Galicia), where Vincent Pol, the author of numerous charming poems, also resides. Vincent Pol was half murdered in the Galician massacres of 1846. The young poet Romanowski was killed in the late insurrection. The poetess "Deotyma," celebrated for her improvisations, lived in Warsaw until the troubles of 1863, when, her father being sent into exile, she determined to accompany him. Modern Polish literature is nearly all of one colour, and founded on one sad theme; and, in the lives of the principal writers, that of the country itself seems to be reflected.

10.—Measures, Weights, and Coins.

The legal measures and weights are the same as in Russia; but some of the German weights and measures are still used in trade.

The coinage is the same as in Russia, with the exception of a coin, much current, called 10 grosh, value 5 copecks.

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ROUTES.

[The names of places are printed in *italics* only in those routes where the places are *described*.]

ROUTE	PAGE
34. Berlin to *Warsaw*, viâ Bromberg and Thorn	351
35. St. Petersburg to Warsaw, viâ Wilna	360
36. Vienna to Warsaw	361
37. Warsaw to Lodz	362
38. Warsaw to *Sandomir*, up the Vistula	362
39. Warsaw to Prussian Frontier, down the Vistula	362
40. Warsaw to Cracow, viâ *Radom* and *Kieltse*	363
41. Warsaw to Novogeorgievsk	364
42. Warsaw to St. Petersburg, viâ *Pultusk*, *Ostrolenka*, and Kowno	364
43. Warsaw to Moscow, viâ *Brest-Litevski* and *Bobruisk*	364
44. Warsaw to Kief, viâ Brest	365
45. Warsaw to Lemberg, viâ *Lublin*	366

ROUTE 34.

BERLIN TO WARSAW, VIÂ BROMBERG AND THORN, BY RAIL.

Trains from the Eastern Railway (Frankfort-on-Oder) Terminus at Berlin morning and evening (*vide* Handbook for Northern Germany).

The kingdom of Poland is entered at Alexandrov, frontier stat., where passports and luggage are examined.

The next stat. is

Vlotslavek, on the Vistula, about 120 m. from Warsaw. Pop. 8500. Considerable trade in grain. A cathedral.

Ostrov. There is a large sugar manufactory here. A line hence to Posen is projected, and being surveyed.

Kutno, 80 m., a town of 5600 Inhab., on small river Okhna.

Lovitsh, 52 m., a district town on river Bzur, of great antiquity, having existed as early as the 12th centy. Pop. 6000. It is now a thriving industrial and commercial town. Considerable fairs for horses and cattle held there. At a short distance from the town, at Lishkovitsé, is a large sugar-refinery; in the vicinity is Nieborov, a fine castle, and Arcadia, a pretty villa, belonging to the Princes Radziwill.

Skiernievitse, about 40 m. from Warsaw. Pop. 3000. Junction for Vienna-Warsaw Railway. This was anciently the residence of the Archbishops of Gnesen, Princes Primate of Poland. It was given by the Emperor Alexander I., together with some extensive domains confiscated by the Prussian Government after the partition of Poland, to Marie Grudzinska, created at the same time Princess of Lovitsh, on the occasion of her marriage with the Grand Duke Constantine, brother of the Emperor. At her death the Princess bequeathed all this property to the kings of Poland. A fine deer-park to be seen.

Ruda Guzovska, 27 m. There is a flax-mill here, founded by Gérard, a French engineer resident in Poland. A short distance from the stat. are some of the largest sugar manufactories

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in Poland, viz., at Guzov, Hermanov, and Oryshev.

Two small stats. beyond (Grodzisk and Prushkov) is

WARSAW.—Pop. 181,000.

Hotels.—Hôtel de l'Europe, cuisine bad; H. d'Angleterre, cuisine good, accommodation very bad (Napoleon occupied a room here on his flight from Moscow); the Cracow, Paris, Vilenski, Rome, and Saxe Hotels.

Restaurants.—At the Hôtel de l'Europe and the Hôtel d'Angleterre.

Vehicles.—Drojkies are stationed in the streets. The fare is 20 copecks the journey, or 75 cops. per hour. The charge for a whole day is 5 rubles (15*s.*). Elegant and clean carriages may be obtained at the hotels.

Clubs.—The *Resource of the Merchants* and the *New Resource of the Merchants.* The *Russian Club*, in the confiscated Zamoyski palace, in New World-street. Strangers may become members, but must be balloted for.

British Consulate General.—Corner of the Allée and Place Ujazdovski, where any information can be obtained relative to passports, &c.

Topography.—Warsaw is situated on the l. bank of the Vistula, at a considerable elevation above the water-level. The Prague suburb lies on the rt. bank of the river. Founded in the 12th centy., it became in the 14th the seat of the princes of the royal family of Piast, appanaged by the duchy of Masovia. On the extinction of that branch at the commencement of the 16th centy., the duchy of Masovia, a feudal possession of Poland, reverted to the Crown, and soon after the kings of Poland, beginning with Sigismund III., made Warsaw their residence, and consequently the capital of the kingdom.

The town was originally composed of the *Stare Miasto*, or old town, strongly resembling the old towns of Germany. The castle of the Dukes of Masovia stood at one extremity, and it was encircled by vast suburbs, long since incorporated with the town. Its present appearance is pretty, gay, and animated, but it offers little of interest to the traveller who is not attracted by business or by a desire to make the country his special study.

In order to have a general view of the town the visitor should proceed to the terminus of the St. Petersburg Rly., in the Prague suburb, whence a vast panorama spreads out in every direction. On the high bank of the Vistula opposite will be seen successively the citadel, the old portions of the town, the castle (*Zamek*) with its gardens, the new parts of the town, and, lastly, the public promenades and gardens which environ the imperial villa of Lazienki. For a bird's-eye view the traveller should ascend the cupola of the Lutheran ch. From that elevation will be seen the square of the Royal Castle and the 4 principal arteries of circulation:—the 1st through the old town, towards the citadel and the country-seats of Mariemont and Bielany; the 2nd along Senator-st., Electoral-st., and Khlodna-st., towards the Vola suburb; the 3rd along the street called the Cracow suburb, through New World-st. and the avenues towards Lazienki and the Castle of Villanov; and the 4th across the bridge on the Vistula, and through the Prague suburb, towards the battle-ground of Grokhov.

The *Square of the Royal Castle* should be the starting-point for visiting the town in detail. It was the scene of the most important popular demonstrations in 1861, when it was twice stained with the blood of the people. A *bronze statue* stands in the square, representing King Sigismund III. (Wasa), erected on a monolith of native marble, by his son Vladislas IV., ornamented with Polish eagles, and recently surrounded with fountains. Opposite is the ROYAL CASTLE, called the *Zamek*, built by the Dukes of Masovia. Additions were made to it by Sigismund III. and Vladislas IV. of the Wasa dynasty, whose arms are still seen on the keystones of the arches. The castle was restored by Augustus III. of Saxony, and embellished by Stanislaus Augustus Poniatowski. The pictures

and objects of art by which it was adorned were carried away after 1831 to St. Petersburg and Moscow. Since that year the castle has ceased to be an imperial residence. The royal apartments, situated in the eastern part of the building nearest the gardens and the Vistula, are occupied by the Lieutenant of the Emperor. The western part of the edifice, near the square, containing the halls where the Senate and the Chamber of Deputies of Poland once assembled, is now a barrack. The arches that support the terraces of the gardens are converted into cavalry stables. A small palace, called *Pod blakhon*, situated below the castle, bought of the Counts Lubomirski by King Stanislaus Augustus, for his nephew Prince Joseph Poniatowski, and now occupied by the Diplomatic Chancery of the Lieutenant, communicates with the castle. A gallery leads from the latter to the royal pew in the cathedral.

Having obtained a general idea of the topography of the town, and visited the Castle Square, the traveller who can afford the time should take the 4 walks here described, and stop to see the buildings and objects enumerated. Those, however, who do not wish to stay more than a day or two at Warsaw (and few travellers have found it necessary to remain longer), will be satisfied with viewing the castle and some of the princely residences in which the city abounds. A visit to Villanov and Lazienki must not in any case be omitted. If driving be substituted for walking, all the places to which the traveller is here introduced may be seen in 2 days.

1*st Walk.*—Leaving the Castle Square by St. John-st., the *Old Town* will be entered. First will be seen the *Cathedral*, built in the 13th centy. It became an archiepiscopal ch. in 1818, having been previously only collegiate. It was restored and ornamented by the kings Michael Visnioviétski and John Sobieski, whose arms are seen over the royal pew and the stalls. There is a fine portrait in mosaic of the Prince Primate Poniatowski, brother of the King. A monument by Thorwaldsen is dedicated to Count Malakhovski, Marshal of the celebrated Diet which drew up the Constitution of the 3rd May, 1792. The inscription on it is—*Przyiacielowi ludu* (to the friend of the people). Another monument records the death of the learned Bishop Albertrandi, a distinguished historian, and the first President of the Society of the Friends of Science, a kind of academy, founded after the partition of Poland, under Prussian rule, and suppressed by the Russian Government in 1831. A portrait of Cardinal Hosius, Bishop of Varmie (Ermerland), a Pole, and President of the Council of Trent; and the tombs of 2 Dukes of Warsaw, brothers, of whom one was a bishop, the other a soldier, complete the list of remarkable objects in the cath. to which the attention of the stranger need be directed. 2. Leaving the ch., and proceeding along St. John-st., the *Square of the Old Town* will be crossed. Beyond, in *Freta-st.*, are the chs. of the ancient convents of the *Paulines* and the *Dominicans* (an old and fine Gothic building). 3. Passing through the quarter called *New Town*, the visitor will come to the *Ch. of Our Lady*, the most ancient sacred edifice in Warsaw, but retaining no traces of its antiquity; then the *Ch. of the Franciscans* (4); and beyond, again, the *Sapieha* and *Sierakovski Barracks* (5), built at the expense of those illustrious families. 6. Leaving these behind, the visitor will reach the CITADEL, built in 1831, at the expense of the town of Warsaw, as a punishment for the insurrection of 1830, and with the object of bombarding the town in case of another revolution. Within the citadel are several barracks, the arsenal, the prison for political offenders, and the military tribunal by which they are judged. There is also a Russian ch., which was once a Roman Catholic place of worship, attached to a college now suppressed.

7. Passing the citadel and the town, a walk of 2 hrs. will enable the traveller to visit *Mariemont*, an old country-seat of the wife of John Sobieski; 8, *Caskada*, much frequented by the inhabs.

of Warsaw; 9, *Bielany*, a pretty place on the Vistula, commanding a fine view; 10, *Camaldolite Ch.* and convent; 11, the *Summer Camp* of the Russian troops quartered at Warsaw; and (12) the *Catholic Cemetery of Povonski*, full of fine monuments and tombs of men remarkable in politics, science, and art.

On returning to town the *Field of Mars* (13), or military exercise-ground, will be passed; also the *Israelite Hospital* (14), the best kept of all the hospitals in town; (15) the *Lunatic Asylum*; and farther still (16), the populous trading and ill-smelling quarter occupied by Jews, where the *Ironworks of Messrs. Evans, Lillpop, and Rau*, the largest establishment of the kind in the country, are situated. In *Krasinski-square*, beyond, is the *Senate-house* (17), or old Krasinski Palace, given by that illustrious family to the Republic of Poland, to be converted to the purposes of a High Court of Justice. In the same square is (18) the *Russian Cathedral*, once the ch. of the College, suppressed in 1832, of the *Fratrum Scolarum-piarum*, who, in the latter part of the existence of Poland, produced some of the most distinguished men in the country.

Following *Miodova-street*, the traveller will see successively (19) the *Ch. of the Basilians* of the Uniat Confession, containing some fine pictures over the Smuglericz altar; (20) the *Palace of the Archbishops of Warsaw*, inhabited last by Archbishop Fialkovski, whose name is known in connexion with the demonstrations of 1861, and by Archbishop Felinski before his exile; close to it is (21) the fine *Palace of the Pac* (*Pats*) *family*, now confiscated; (22) the *Ch. of the Capucins*, whose convent, just suppressed, was founded by King John III. Sobieski, in token of gratitude for his victory over the Turks at Vienna. In a chapel within this ch. is a sarcophagus, containing the heart of that monarch, erected in his honour by the Emperor Nicholas, in 1829, after the war with Turkey. In the same chapel is a sepulchral urn, dedicated to the memory of King Stanislaus Augustus Poniatowski, with the inscription, *Morte quis fortior? Gloria et Amor.* Following Miodova-st., *Senator-street* will be reached near the Royal Castle, at the point from which the visitor set out.

2nd Walk.—Starting from Castle-sq., and turning into *Senator-str.*, the first building that will meet the eye is (1) the old *Palace of the Princes Primate.* The Archbishops of Gnesen, Primates of the Church of Poland, independently of their high position in the ecclesiastical hierarchy, rendered still more brilliant by the dignity of Legate of the Holy Apostolic See, which they enjoyed by right (*Legatus natus*), were the first senators in the kingdom, and, in the intervals between the death of a king and the coronation of his successor, they were at the head of the Government (*interrex*). Their palace at Warsaw was confiscated, with other property of the Bishops, by the Prussian Government, after the partition of Poland. The Minister of War resided in this palace until 1831; and, after having been occupied by various Government offices until 1862, it is now appropriated by the Ministry of Public Instruction. Following this street, a fine square is reached, on which stands (2) the *Hôtel de Ville* (Police-Office), formerly the palace of the Princes Jablonovski, burned down in 1863. (3) The *Theatre*, or rather 2 theatres within the same building, will be seen in this square. The theatres are supported by the Government, and constitute a monopoly. The Balleterinas are very good at Warsaw. Italian operas are sometimes given. (4) The *Mint* will be seen in Bielanska-st., off the square. Proceeding along Senator-str. the traveller will come to (5) the *Reformed Church* (belonging to a reformed order of Franciscan friars). This beautiful edifice contains a monument to Grand Marshal Bielinski, who contributed greatly towards introducing order and a police system in the ancient Republic. In front of the ch. is (6) a *Statue of the Holy Virgin*, very prettily illuminated at night. Opposite is (7) a *Club*, called

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The Resource of the Merchants, located in a palace that once belonged to the Marquises Myszkovski, whose title and entailed estates have passed to the family of Count Wielopolski, so well known in connection with revolutions in Poland. The Bank Square is a little way beyond. In it stands (8) the *Palace of the Counts Zamoiski*, built in a few weeks by King Augustus II., for the Countess Orzelska, his much-loved natural daughter. Belonging at present to one of the richest and most illustrious families of Poland, it contains some fine pictures, and many remarkable objects of art. Opposite is (9) the *Bank of Poland*, with a fine Exchange-hall. Next to this are (10) the handsome buildings of the *Ministry of Finance*. Following the *Rymarska* and *Przhejazd* streets in the same direction, the *Old Arsenal* (11) will be seen, where, on the 29th November, the most sanguinary conflict at the beginning of the revolution of 1830 took place; there also is the *Ministry* of the Interior, in the old *Mostovski Palace* (12). Returning a short distance and following *Leshno*-street, the traveller will pass by (13) the *Evangelical Chapel*, where the services of the Church of England used to be performed by an English clergyman. The *Church* and the *Convent of the Carmelites* (14), used as a prison before the construction of the citadel, stand a little farther on. It was the unconstitutional incarceration of a number of persons in this prison that provoked the revolution of 1830. Entering *Elektoralna*-street, and following it, the tourist will come to the *Church of St. Charles Borromeo* (15), a recent edifice of great elegance; the wood-work is of the larch, grown in the country.

Leaving the town by the *Vola* barrier, the *Evangelical Cemetery* (16) may be visited. John Cockerell, to whom Belgium owes so much of her industrial prosperity, lies buried there. Refreshments may be obtained at (17) the *Ohm Gardens*, in the vicinity, a favourite resort of the inhabitants of Warsaw.

18. The *Russian Cemetery* has been formed since 1831, within the fort constructed for the defence of Warsaw. At the centre of the fort stands (19) the *old parish church of Vola*, now transformed into a Russian church. In 1831, during the siege of Warsaw, which might almost be called a battle in front of Vola fort, General Sovinski, its commandant, was killed by the Russian troops at the foot of the altar in that ch., having refused to surrender. A *new parochial Catholic church* (20) has recently been constructed, in lieu of the one appropriated to the use of the Russo-Greek Church. It is built after the exact model of the old ch., and stands in the centre of the plain on which, in the 16th, 17th, and 18th centuries, the kings of Poland were elected. Half-an-hour's walk will bring the tourist to (21) *Rashyn*, a small townlet, celebrated for the battle which Prince Jos. Poniatowski fought there in 1809 with the Austrians, and to (22) *Falenty*, once a royal castle, and now belonging to Count Przezdziecki, with fine gardens and conservatories. Pisciculture is pursued here on a large scale.

The town will be re-entered by the *Jerusalem Barrier*, along a fine avenue of poplars, which runs down to the Vistula. The *Warsaw-Vienna Rly. Stat.* (23) will be passed, and opposite to it (24) *Kronenberg's Cigar Manufactory*. Turning to the l. into Mazovietska-st., the *Hospital of the Infant Jesus* (25), for foundlings, one of the largest civil hospitals in Warsaw, will be seen. A little beyond is the fine house and offices of (26) the *Crédit Foncier* of Poland. The Agricultural Society, associated with the events of 1861, held its meetings there. Next to it stands (27) the *Lutheran Ch.*, a large structure with an imposing cupola, but built with very little taste, commenced by Turkish prisoners in the reign of John Sobieski. 28. The *Saxony Gardens* (Jardin de Saxe), a very fine public park, with magnificent chesnut-trees, are immediately opposite. They once appertained to a *maison de plaisance*, built by Augustus II., king of Poland, of the Saxon dynasty, whence the name. The house, which was in a

very pretty style of architecture, was demolished and replaced by a useless colonnade and two very large blocks of buildings of little beauty. At one extremity of the gardens is (29) the *Market-place*, with "*the Irongate*," and the *Gostinnoi Dvor*, or bazaar, a pretty building. At the other end of the square is (30) *Saxony Square* (Place de Saxe), where military reviews are held. A monument was to have been erected on it, by national subscription, to the memory of Prince Joseph Poniatowski, the brilliant Polish leader, who perished at the battle of Leipsig in 1813. A bronze equestrian statue had already been cast by Thorwaldsen when the insurrection of 1830 prevented its erection. After 1831 the Emperor Nicholas made a present of the statue to Prince Paskewitch, the victor of Warsaw, who caused the head of the statue to be replaced by another bearing his own features, and the monument, in that condition, to be erected on his immense estates of Homel, in the province of Mohileff, purchased, it is said, out of the savings which he had made during the 25 years of his viceroyalty in Poland. In place of the statue originally contemplated the Emperor Nicholas caused (31) a *monument* in the shape of a truncated obelisk to be erected in Saxony-square, commemorative of the supposed fidelity of the Polish generals who perished in the revolution of the 29th Nov. 1830, and of whom many were killed, by accident or mistake, while going to join the regiments that had declared in favour of the insurrection. 32. The *Brühl Palace* likewise stands in Saxony-square; it was built by Count Brühl, minister and favourite of Augustus III., and occupied between 1815 and 1830 by the Grand Duke Constantine, brother of the Emperor Nicholas, and Commander-in-chief of the Polish army. Marquis Wielopolski took up his residence there in 1862 and 1863. 33. The *Hôtel de l'Europe*, a large and fine building confiscated by the Government in 1863, after the assassination of a spy, stands at the other end of the square.

3rd Walk.—A third excursion may be undertaken from the same square of the Royal Castle, beginning by the street called the Cracow Faubourg. The following remarkable objects will be passed:—1. *Church of the Convent of the Bernardines*, now suppressed; one of the 2 churches entered by the Russian troops in 1861, a large building of considerable beauty: the architecture of the cloisters will repay inspection. 2. Next to it, *the house of the Benevolent Society*, with the inscription *Res sacra miser.*: among other charitable works the society distributes soup gratuitously, and supplies a dinner to the poor at the rate of a halfpenny per head. This house was occupied during the French emigration by Louis XVIII. 3. In front of it is a small *Statue of the Virgin*, before which, in 1861, the populace was kneeling in prayer when they were charged by the Cossacks with lance, sabre, and whip. The street narrowed considerably at this part, to spread out farther on, and it is therefore being widened. 4. The *Post-office*. 5. The pretty Ch. of the Carmelites, suppressed. The ancient archives of the Crown of Poland are kept in this convent. The archives of Lithuania were removed to St. Petersburg, where they remain in a state which the student of history must ever deplore. 6. Contiguous to it is the *Palace of the Namiestnik*, so called from its having been the residence of the Namiestnik, or Lieutenant of the Emperor, from 1815 to 1830. This was anciently the palace of the Princes Radziwill, but is now occupied by the Council of Administration, and the Council of State of the Kingdom of Poland. 7. Opposite is the *Palace of the Counts Potocki*, formerly belonging to the Princes Czartoryski. 8. Alongside the *Hôtel de l'Europe*, old palace of the Princes Oginski. 9. On the other side of the street, the *Tarnowski Palace*, with a garden and a fine view of the Vistula. 10. A little farther is the fine *Church of the Convent of the Visitandines*, with a good painting over the high altar. 11. Next to it, the *Palace of Count Potocki*, anciently belonging to the Tyszkiewicz family,

furnished with taste and much luxury, and containing some fine pictures and works of art. 12. Close to this again is the *Palace* of Count Uruski, anciently the Mokranovski Palace. 13. Beside it is a vast courtyard with a great number of buildings called the *Casimir Barracks*, because they were constructed by King John Casimir. The *University*, suppressed in 1831, but restored in 1861, is at present located in these buildings, together with its small library; the public library, once the most extensive in the world, having been removed to St. Petersburg in 1794 (*vide* Imperial Public Library). A second removal of books to St. Petersburg was made in 1831. Here are also the zoological, mineralogical, numismatic, and other collections of the university. It has a fine garden, with a view of the Vistula. 14. Opposite is the *Palace of the Counts Krasinski*, which once belonged to Radzieiovski, of such unhappy celebrity by his participation in advising Charles Gustavus X., King of Sweden, to make war on Poland. It contains a library, pictures, and works of art. 15. Alongside stands the *Church of the Holy Cross*, of the suppressed convent of the order of Lazarus, founded by the consort of King John III. Sobieski. It is very large and handsome; the high altar is particularly fine. In a lateral chapel is the tomb of Prince Joseph Poniatowski. 16. *Monument to Copernicus*, the great astronomer, by Thorwaldsen, erected by means of a national subscription. 17. Behind the monument stands the *House of the Society of the Friends of Science*, suppressed in 1831, and already mentioned in connection with the monument to Bishop Albertrandi. It is now occupied by a Russian school; on its site once stood a Dominican convent, which was for some time the prison of Vassili Shuiski, elected by the Boyars Tsar of Moscovy; and that of his brothers, taken prisoners by the Poles, who occupied Moscow in 1611, after a war which had been very uselessly and unjustly undertaken. 18. Facing this building are two large and fine *houses*, which once belonged to *Count Andrew Zamoiski*: one of them had been formerly the palace of the Branicki family; the other had belonged to the Princes Sapieha, and Prince Adam Czartoryski, the venerable representative of the Polish emigration of 1831, resided in it. These two houses were confiscated in 1863, after an attempt made on the life of Count Berg, Lieutenant of the Emperor, by means of Orsini shells, thrown, according to one account, from a window of the latter house, and, according to others, from a window of the house opposite, then occupied by the School of Medicine, and now by the Russian School.

At this point the traveller will have reached *Novi Sviat* (New World) street, which leads to a large square (19), with a very pretty little ch., dedicated to St. Alexander, and built by order of the Emperor Alexander I. to commemorate for ever the re-establishment of a kingdom of Poland in 1815. 20. In front of this ch. are 2 crosses, erected, says a popular legend, to the memory of two brothers who killed each other simultaneously in a very singular combat,—both having been in love with their own sister. Their names are not remarkable, and deserve no mention; but the presence of these 2 crosses, and the legend with which they are connected, opposite the ch. built in memory of the re-annexation of Poland to Russia, is a mournful emblem of the fratricidal struggle in which for two centuries the two kindred people of the Slavonian race have been engaged, and of which the true motive is the desire of each to possess the provinces inhabited by a sister nation—the Ruthenians. 21. Between these crosses is a *Statue of St. John of Nepomuck*, a saint much venerated in Bohemia and Poland, who died because he would not divulge a secret that had been confided to him. This statue was erected to commemorate the first paving of the streets of Warsaw by Grand Marshal Bielinski. 22. In the same square is the *Deaf, Dumb, and Blind Asylum*, where those unfortunates are taught with care and

success the arts and trades compatible with their infirmities.

From the square, the *Avenues*, or Champs Elysées of Warsaw, will be entered, bordered by fine lime-trees in front of elegant private residences. Here are public gardens, in which the inhabitants of Warsaw promenade, and listen to music while partaking of refreshments at the cafés. Walking on, the traveller will emerge in a large square where the troops are exercised. 23. Here stands the *Military Hospital of Uiazdov*, formerly a castle of the kings of Poland, and surrounded by an extensive park. 24. A little beyond are the *Botanical Gardens* and the *Observatory*. 25. From this garden the visitor will pass into the fine park of *Lazienki*, an elegant country residence, built by King Stanislaus Augustus Poniatowski. This is the residence of the Emperor of Russia when he comes to Warsaw. The ceilings are painted by *Bacciarelli*. The walls are hung with portraits of the numerous and remarkable Beauties of Warsaw in the reign of Stanislaus. In the park will be seen many villas dependent on the Imperial residence, a very pretty little Theatre in the Conservatory, another larger one *al fresco*, and a statue of King John Sobieski erected by Stanislaus Augustus at the festival commemorative of the 100th anniversary of the victory gained at Vienna. Looking at this statue in 1850, after the war in Hungary, the Emperor Nicholas exclaimed, "The two kings of Poland that have committed the gravest error are John III. and myself, —for we both saved the Austrian monarchy." 26. The Lazienki Park is contiguous to the fine gardens of the *Belvedere Palace*, formerly the residence of the Grand Duke Constantine, and where, in 1830, an attempt was to have been made to deprive him of life or liberty. It is now the residence of the Emperor's Lieutenants. In one of the rooms is a series of engravings representing the uniforms of the Polish troops prior to 1830.

From hence a pleasant walk of 2 hrs., past the Belvedere Barrier, will bring the traveller to (27) *the Castle of Villanov*, now the property of Count Potocki. It once belonged to King John III. Sobieski, who built it, and lived much in it. It was here he died in 1696. This château, of elegant proportions, and in the style of an Italian villa, with a terrace and wings, ornamented with pictures and bas-reliefs, was built in part by the Turks whom Sobieski had made prisoners in one of his glorious campaigns, and finished on the original plan by Stanislaus Augustus. At the death of Sobieski the domain of Villanov was sold by his son to the Countess Sieniafska, and afterwards became successively the property of Stanislas, of the family of the Lubomirskis, and of the Count Potocki. It was to this retreat that Sobieski brought back the trophies of his mighty deeds in arms; it was here that he endeavoured to forget the rival factions of his nobles and the stormy debates of the diets: and, finally, it was to this palace, and accompanied by thousands of his countrymen, who shouted their passionate welcome, that he came after he had driven the Moslem from the walls of Vienna. The walls of the first room shown to strangers in the palace of Villanov are hung with full-length portraits of the Sapieha and Jablonovski families, and of the Polish kings and queens. In another apartment is a collection of objects of art, armour, and other curiosities. Here is preserved the magnificent suit of armour presented by the Pope to Sobieski after the Turks were driven from Vienna. It is covered with arabesques and chasings, and inlaid with ivory and mother-of-pearl. The room of the beautiful Marie d'Arquien, Sobieski's queen, is also shown, and near it is a small one covered with pictures, representing the peccadilloes of Jupiter from Danaë down to Leda. The queen herself figures on the ceiling amidst a crowd of lovers; and there is a portrait and bust of her in an adjoining apartment. In the collection of pictures there are some works of Lucas of Leyden and Lucas of Cranach, worthy

of notice; also an admirable Rubens—the Death of Seneca. In the park of Villanov is the magnificent tent of Kara Mustapha, one of the spoils of war brought from Vienna by Sobieski.

Visitors will obtain refreshments at an inn immediatly adjoining.

Not far from Villanov are two charming villas belonging to Count Potocki; (28) *Morysin*, with a fine park and deer, and (29) *Natolin*, where pheasants are preserved. 30. Near these is *Ursinov*, formerly belonging to Julius Ursin Niemcevicz, the Polish poet and historian, and friend of Kosciuszko and Washington. On the way back to town many villas with pretty and extensive gardens will be passed, some private, others public. The most remarkable are—(31) *Krolikarnia*, a picture gallery; (32) Viezhbno; (33) Mokotov, very picturesque. Beyond is a large field where races are held annually between the 15th and 20th June.

Having reached town by the *Mokotov* Barrier, along the Avenue, and past the ch. of St. Alexander, the traveller may, by going into *Kzionzhentsa-street*, pass in front of (34) *St. Lazarus Hospital* for venereal diseases, which is very well kept, and go into the *industrial part* of the city, called *Solec* (35). There the visitor will pass by the iron-works of the Bank of Poland, established by W. Perks, an Englishman; the *Carpet Manufactory* of the brothers Baumann; the *Engine Factory* of Count Andrew Zamoiski and Co.; the *Chemical Works* of Hirchmann and Kiievski; the *Steam Mill* and *Bakinghouse* of the Bank of Poland; and several *Breweries* and *other establishments* of minor importance. Re-entering Warsaw by *Tamelka-street*, a small castle will be passed with a palace called *Ordynatskié* (36), where the Conservatory of Music is now located. This small palace belonged to the Princes Ostrogski, descendants of the Rurik sovereigns of Russia, who held large domains in Volhynia. It afterwards passed to the Zamoiski, and later to the Khodkiewitch (Chodkiewicz) families; three races from which the most distinguished soldiers of Poland have sprung. The *Cracow Faubourg* is reached here close to the statue of Copernicus.

4th Walk.—A fourth excursion may be made, starting as before from the Castle Square, and proceeding along the fine road that leads to the Vistula. The fine permanent iron bridge over the river is 1890 ft. long, and was built on 6 trusses on the American principle, by Kerbedz, the Polish General of Engineers, who constructed the Nicholas Bridge over the Neva. The bridge leads to the dirty *Prague Suburb*, on the rt. bank of the Vistula, where a horse and cattle market is held. This suburb was anciently fortified. It was taken by assault in 1794 by the Russians under Suwaroff, when it was fired, and its inhabitants, 16,000 in number, indiscriminately put to the sword. The *Ch. of the Bernardines*, now the parish ch., in which some of the inhabitants vainly sought refuge, may be visited. There is a fine *Jewish Synagogue* in this part of the town; and the terminus of the *St. Petersburg Railway* is also there. A *Tête-de-pont* covers a floating-bridge, which is exclusively appropriated to the citadel of Warsaw.

From the Prague Suburb a further excursion may be made to the country residences on an island of the Vistula, called *Saska Kempa*, also a favourite walk of the inhabitants of Warsaw. Not far from thence is *Grokhov* village, where a battle was fought in 1831. Two monuments have been erected there: one by order of the Emperor Nicholas to commemorate the battle; the other in the reign of Alexander I., on the occasion of the construction of the first royal road in Poland. There are many distilleries in the neighbourhood, as well as tan-yards and other establishments where the raw products of the country are prepared.

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ROUTE 35.

ST. PETERSBURG TO WARSAW, VIÂ WILNA, BY RAIL.

For route from St. Petersburg to Wilna, *vide* Rte. 1, Sect. I., RUSSIA.)

Passengers change carriages at *Wilna.*

Landvorovo Stat., 245 m. from Warsaw.

GRODNO Stat., 160 m. from Warsaw, chief town of the province of the same name. Pop. 26,000.

The town is situated on the right sloping bank of the Niemen, and on the banks of the Gorodnichanka rivulet. Some historians identify the principality of Grodno, mentioned in the chronicles of 1128, with the present Grodno, while others recognise in it the small town of Gorodno in the district of Pinsk. In every case Grodno (Gorodno, Goroden) was founded by Slavonians, and existed already in the 12th centy., as plain mention of it is made in chronicles of the year 1183. The churches of Grodno at this period were built of stone, so that the place must have been of considerable importance. In 1224 Grodno was burned down by the Teutonic knights, and in 1241, when ruled by Prince Uri Glebovitch, it was almost completely destroyed by the Tartar chief Kaidan, who burned down its wooden castle which stood on a mound at the point where the Gorodnichanka falls into the Niemen. In the same year the devastated town was occupied by the Lithuanians, led from the north by Erdzivilla, nephew of the Grand Duke Mindovgus. In 1259 Daniel and Robert, Dukes of Galicia, assisted by Duke Basil of Volhynia, and in 1277 the Dukes Mstislaf, Vladimir, and Yury (George), aided by the Tartars, assaulted the town, but did not succeed in establishing themselves permanently in it. It was attacked by the Teutonic knights in 1284, 1296, 1306, 1311, 1328, 1361, and 1391, and its feud with the knights only terminated in 1398, when Vitold ceded Samogitia to the principality. The most disastrous period in the history of Grodno was the year 1284, when the Teutonic knights under Conrad Tirberg razed the town to the ground, and in 1391, when Malborg, the grand master of the order, destroyed the upper and lower castles, burned the town, and devastated the neighbourhood. From 1413 Grodno became a district town of the voevodship of Trok, formed out of the principalities of Trok and Grodno. The most flourishing epoch in the history of Grodno was the reign of Stephen Batory, who made it his residence and seat of administration. In his reign a stone castle was erected at the mouth of the Gorodnichanka: its walls are still visible. In 1655 the Russians took possession of the town, which had been half destroyed by a conflagration, and after this the Swedes occupied it four years. In 1678 the first ordinary general diets of the kingdom of Poland assembled at Grodno. The diet of 1793 held here confirmed the partition of Poland, and that of 1795 witnessed the abdication of Stanislaus Augustus Poniatowski. In the middle of the 18th centy. Grodno was one of the most flourishing towns of Lithuania and Poland. For this prosperity it was indebted to Tiesenhausen, its mayor, who established many factories, &c., and founded several schools and a public library, museum, &c. In 1793 Grodno was annexed to Russia, and in 1801 made a provincial town. The town contains 5 churches and 2 monasteries converted to the use of the Russo-Greek clergy, and 5 Rom. Cath. chs., of which the oldest, belonging to the order of Bernardine monks, was founded in 1494. There are also 2 Rom. Cath. monasteries. The most important buildings are the governor's house, the military barracks or the old castle, the

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military hospital, erected on the site of the new castle built by Augustus II. for the meetings of the Diet. The trade is mostly in grain, timber, and hemp, which are floated down the Niemen for foreign exportation. A fine bridge over the Niemen. 3 stats. beyond is

Bialystok Stat., 108 m. 16,000 Inhab. District town in province of Grodno, anciently the property of Hetman Branicki, brother-in-law of Stanislaus Augustus. It was the chief town of the district of Bialystok, transferred to Prussia at the partition of 1796, and ceded by Napoleon I. to Russia in 1807 by the Treaty of Tilsit. Eleven years of good government between those dates produced an amount of material prosperity, of which the measures of General Mouravieff between 1863 and 1865 have not been able to destroy all traces. The kingdom of Poland is entered one stat. beyond, at

Lapy, where there is a bridge over the navigable river Narev, which forms the boundary of the province of Grodno, and that of Augustovo in the kingdom of Poland. 2 small stats. beyond is

Malkin, 52 m. A bridge over the Bug river.

After passing 2 insignificant stats. the train reaches

WARSAW, described in Rte. 34.

ROUTE 36.

VIENNA TO WARSAW, BY RAIL.

For route to Polish frontier from Vienna, *vide* Handbook for Southern Germany.

The kingdom of Poland will be entered, if coming from Austria, at *Granitsa*, or, if travelling from Prussia, at *Sosnovitse*, at both of which places luggage and passports undergo examination. The 2 branch-lines meet at Zombkowitse, 183 m. from Warsaw. There are coal, iron, and zinc mines in the neighbourhood; also iron and zinc works. 3 stats. beyond is

Tszenstokhova Stat., 143 m., on the l. bank of the Warta. Pop. 9000. This town is celebrated for its convent, situated on a small elevation called Jasna Gura (*Clara-mons*), which attracts numerous pilgrims from all parts of Poland, and even from Silesia, which has been separated from Poland for more than 6 centuries. It contains a fine ch., with a chapel dedicated to the Holy Virgin, much venerated by the Poles since the wars with Charles Gustavus of Sweden, under the name of *Regina Regni Poloniæ*. The picture of the Virgin is reputed to have been painted by St. Luke. The convent is surrounded by a pretty little fortress in the shape of a quincunx. Frequently besieged by the enemies of the country, it was gloriously defended against the Swedes in 1655 by its Prior Kovdecki, to whom a suitable monument was erected in 1861; and once more in 1771 against the Russian troops, by Casimir Pulavski, one of the chiefs of the Confederation of Bar, afterwards killed near Savannah during the War of Independence. 3 stats. beyond is

Petrikau (Piotrkov), 91 m., Pop. 11,000, on the small river Shrava. The ancient tribunals of Poland were held here. A line to Lublin will be constructed from this point. Passing the stat. of Boby, of which nothing interesting can be said, the train reaches

Rokiciny Stat., from which a line runs to Lodz. 2 stats. beyond is

Skiernievitse, junction with Warsaw-Bromberg Railway, described in Rte. 34, which see for the remainder of the journey to WARSAW.

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ROUTE 37.

WARSAW TO LODZ.

By rail to Rokiciny Stat. on Warsaw and Vienna line. Thence by branch line to

Lodz, Pop. 34,000, in the centre of a large cotton-manufacturing district.

ROUTE 38.

WARSAW TO SANDOMIR, UP THE VISTULA, BY STEAMER.

Count Andrew Zamoiski and Co. have started small passenger steamers, which navigate the Vistula in summer both above and below Warsaw. Travellers may leave the kingdom by this route, visiting many places of interest on the way, of which we may mention the following :—

Gura Calvaria. A place of pilgrimage.

Czersk (Chersk). Ruins of a castle of the Dukes of Masovia.

Mnishev, at the mouth of the Pilitsa river, which is likewise navigable.

Matsieiovitse, a castle belonging to Count Zamoiski. The battle-field on which Kosciusko was wounded and taken prisoner by the Russians.

Ivangorod, a fortress near the small town of Demblin, the property of Prince Paskievitch, at the mouth of the small navigable river Viepsh.

Pulavy, small trading town, with a magnificent castle and an estate, confiscated in 1831, which belonged to Prince Czartoryski, and is now called Nova Alexandria. There is a School of Agriculture here.

Ianovitse. Fine ruin of a castle of the Firlei family.

Kazimiezh, a small trading town, founded by Casimir the Great. The Jews enjoyed great privileges in it. The house inhabited by Esther, a Jewess, who was the king's mistress, is still shown.

Zavikhost, small town with a Custom-house.

Sandomir. Pop. 4000. Very prettily situated, with an ancient cathedral and a castle. It was several times devastated by invasions of the Tartars, Cossacks, Swedes, Austrians, and Russians. The navigable San river flows into the Vistula near the town.

ROUTE 39.

WARSAW TO PRUSSIAN FRONTIER, DOWN THE VISTULA, BY STEAMER.

Travellers may return to Prussia by this route.

The steamer will pass under the walls of the Citadel of Warsaw, close to the convent of Bielany and the pretty castle of Jablona, belonging to Count Potocki. The places of interest beyond are—

Novogeorgievsk, or Modlin—its name since 1831. A fortress of considerable strength, requiring 12,000 men for its defence, and which, having been several times besieged, has always held out

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until the end of each campaign without being taken. It lies about 10 m. below Warsaw, at the confluence of the Narev and Bug with the Vistula. Fine store-house for grain.

Zakrotshim, a small town, in which the Diet of Poland met in 1831 after the fall of Warsaw.

Chervinsk (Czervinsk). Ruins of a large castle of the Dukes of Masovia.

Vyshogrod (Wyszogrod), a town with a small trade, at the mouth of the Bzura.

Dobzhykov. Large granaries.

Plotsk (Plock). 13,000 Inhab. Provincial town, well built, and prettily situated. In the cathedral will be seen the tombs of Vladislas, Hermann, and Boleslas III., Kings of Poland, and of Bishop Lubienski, one of the most distinguished of modern Latin scholars.

Duninovo. A sugar manufactory, with a brewery, close by.

Soczevka. Paper-mill, belonging to Mr. Epstein, banker at Warsaw.

Dobrzyn. Ruins of a castle.

Vlotslavek, described in Rte. 34.

Tsiekhotsinek (Ciechocinek). Salt-springs and salt-works. Establishment for saline baths.

Bobrovniki. Ruins of a castle on an island of the Vistula.

Nieshava. Polish Custom-house for the Vistula and the Prussian frontier.

Beyond, in Prussia, the Vistula flows past the fortress of THORN; the castle of KULM, given in the 13th centy., by Conrad Duke of Masovia, to the Teutonic Knights, on condition that they should conquer the pagan Prussian people—they effected the conquest, but retained it; MARIENWERDER, a fine castle of the Grand Masters of the Teutonic Order; DIRSCHAU, where there is a magnificent railway bridge; and lastly, DANTZIG, where the Vistula falls into the Baltic, after flowing 665 m. from its source in the Carpathians.

See *Handbook of North Germany.*

ROUTE 40.

WARSAW TO CRACOW, VIÂ RADOM AND KIELTSE, BY ROAD.

Although it is not probable that many travellers will leave the lines of rly. above described, yet we feel bound to sketch out some itineraries along the "royal roads" of the kingdom, for the benefit of the more enterprising tourist.

The distance between Warsaw and Cracow, by the "royal road," is 282¼ v. or 190 m. The cost of posting the whole way, with two horses, is 28 r. 92½ c. A mail-coach as far as Kieltse. The following places will be passed:—

Rashin. Battle-field in 1809.

Groiets, a town with a small trade.

Bialobzhegi. Bridge over the Pilitsa.

Radom, 10,000 Inhab.; chief town of province; 65 m. from Warsaw. A road branches off hence to Pulavy and Lublin, and another, viâ Skaryshev and Opatov (where there is a fine ch., with a tomb of the Shidloviecki family), to Sandomir, on the Vistula.

Shidlovits, 4000 Inhab., with a ch., and the ruins of a castle of the Shidloviecki family.

Suhedniov. Seat of the administration of the Government iron-mines. A *chaussée* branches off to Zavikhost on the Vistula, passing many iron-mines.

Kieltse, 5000 Inhab., 112 m. from Warsaw; situated at the foot of the mountains of the Holy Cross. A cathedral adorns the town, and an episcopal palace, confiscated by the Russian government. A road leads hence to Busk. Sulphur-baths. Royal road

continues to Cracow, passing by *Bialogon*, where there are some iron-works; *Khenciny*, celebrated for its marble-quarries; *Ksionzh*, a fine castle of the Marquis Wielopolski; and *Miekhov*, where one of the bloodiest battles of the insurrection of 1863 was fought.

Cracow is about 8 m. beyond the frontier of the kingdom of Poland.

ROUTE 41.

WARSAW TO NOVOGEORGIEVSK, BY ROAD.

Should the steamer down the Vistula be unavailable, travellers may take post horses to the fortress of Novogeorgievsk, or Modlin, 3¾ v. distant, at an expense of 37½ copecks. It is described in Rte. 39. The small town opposite the fortress is called *Nove-Miasto*.

ROUTE 42.

WARSAW TO ST. PETERSBURG, VIÂ PULTUSK, OSTROLENKA, AND KOWNO, BY ROAD.

Distance 699 v. (466 m.) to Kowno, and 1075 v. (717 m.) to St. Petersburg. Posting, 2½ cop. per horse to Kowno, and 5 cop. beyond.

After passing Jablonna the traveller will be driven through Zegzhe, a fine estate of the Counts Krasinski. There is a bridge here over the Narev.

Pultusk, 5000 Inhab., celebrated for the battle fought by Charles XII. with the Saxons in 1703, and that of the French with the Russians in 1806.

Ostrolenka, 3000 Inhab. One of the fiercest battles of the insurrection of 1831 was fought here.

Augustov, 8000 Inhab. The Augustov Canal, here crossed, connects the Vistula with the Niemen.

Suwalki, 13,000 Inhab. Chief town of province of Augustovo. The next large town is

Kowno, described in Rte. 1., Sect. I., Russia. Here the train may be taken to St. Petersburg or Berlin.

ROUTE 43.

WARSAW TO MOSCOW, VIÂ BREST-LITEVSKI (TERESPOL) AND BOBRUISK.

The distance between Warsaw and Moscow is about 1188 v., of which 192 v. (to Terespol) may be made by rail, the principal stats. on which are—

Siedltse, 84 v. from Warsaw, a town of 8000 Inhab.

Miendzizhets, 136 v. from Warsaw. Pop. 8000. A fine estate belonging to Count Potocki, and formerly to the Prince Czartoryski.

Biala, 159 v. from Warsaw. Pop. 4000. An old estate of the Princes Radziwill. A fine castle in ruins.

Terespol, 192 v. from Warsaw. From hence the railway will be carried over the Bug to

Brest- (or Bzhests-) Litevski, Pop. 20,000, on rt. bank of Bug, at junction with Mukhovetse.

The town of Berestof is mentioned

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in 1020, when it was taken by Boleslaus the Brave, King of Poland. In 1189 King Casimir the Just built a castle here. After that it frequently changed masters, the princes of Galicia, Volhynia, Lithuania, and the kings of Poland, holding it in turn. It was devastated by the Tartars in 1241, and rebuilt in 1275 by Vladimir Prince of Volhynia, whose stone castle was demolished in 1831, when Brest-Litefski was made a Russian fortress. In 1319 Guedemin, Grand Duke of Lithuania, took the town, and later it came into the possession of Boleslaus of Masovia, at whose death in 1340 it was claimed by King Casimir of Poland, and by him given to the son of Guédémin. From that time it became part of Lithuania under the name of Brzesc. In 1379 the Teutonic Knights destroyed its suburbs, in 1436 a peace was concluded here between Poland and the German order. The Khan of the Crimea, Mengli Ghirei, ravaged and burned the town in the latter part of the 15th centy. Diets were frequently held here in the reign of Sigismund II. In 1599, after the union of Lithuania with Poland, Brest became the residence of the Princes Radziwill, who were made governors or "elders" of the town. The Uniat faith was adopted here in 1594 at a council of bishops from Western Russia, and in 1596 another "orthodox council," held at Brest, cursed those who had seceded from that faith. In 1706 the Swedes pillaged the town, which was incorporated with Russia at the second partition of Poland. About half the inhabitants are Jews. In the 16th centy. their synagogue was considered the first in Europe. A considerable trade is carried on in corn, linseed, hides, timber, &c., much of which is floated down to Dantzig. By means of the "Royal Canal" the Bug and the Mukhovets rivers afford fluviatile communication with Prussia and Austria. The fortress, about a mile from the town, is of the first class.

Until the railway is pushed on hence to Smolensk, the traveller will have to post from Brest to Roslavl on Witebsk-Orel line, passing through

Kobryn, a small town on the canal which unites the Vistula with the Dnieper.

Slutsk. Pop. 9000. A small town anciently celebrated for the Calvinist schools, patronized by a branch of the Radziwill family professing that confession; and for its manufactories of the girdles worn with the old Polish dress.

Bobruisk. Pop. 24,000. A fortified town on the Beresina. The fortress is one of the strongest in Europe.

Rogatshev. Pop. 3000. A small town on the Dnieper.

Rostavl. Stat. on Witebsk-Orel line.

ROUTE 44.

WARSAW TO KIEF, VIÂ BREST, BY ROAD.

To Brest-Litevski as in preceding route. Distance to Kief 764 v. (510 m.). Posting for 2 horses 47 r. 60 c.

Kovel, a small town.

Rovno. Castle and estates of Prince Lubomirski.

Kozhets, a small town. After the extinction of the princely family of Korecki, a branch of the reigning family of Lithuania, this property passed to the Princes Czartoryski, another branch of the same family. Ruins of a castle.

Novgorod Volynski, small town on the Slutsh river.

Jitomir, 638 v. from Warsaw, chief town in province of Volhynia. Pop. 38,000. *Hotel:* Minelle; accommodation good.

The town is situated at the junction of the Kamenki with the Teterev. According to tradition it was founded by Jitomir, one of the favourites of Askold and Dyr. In 1240 and 1287 the town suffered at the hands of the Tartars, and in 1320 was taken possession of by Guedemin, Prince or

Grand Duke of Lithuania. On his death Jitomir fell to the share of his son Olgerd. In 1377 the latter was succeeded by his son Vladimir, from whom the town was seized by Vitovt, Prince of Jmudi, nephew of Olgerd. Vitovt made it over to his brother Svidrigailo, on whose death the former again resumed possession of it, and appointed prince John Olskanski governor. In 1399 Jitomir was destroyed by the Tartar Khan Edigei, who defeated Vitovt on the river Vorskla. In 1444 Jitomir was one of the 15 principal towns of Lithuania. In 1545 it was destroyed by fire. In 1606 it was devastated by the Tartars. In 1622 its castle was strongly fortified. Bogdan Khmelnitsky ravaged the town in 1648. In 1686 it was made the principal town of the Voevodship of Kief. A monastery and college of the order of the Jesuits was founded here in 1726. In 1778 Jitomir was annexed to Russia. Ten of its churches are devoted to the use of the Russo-Greek clergy. The cathedral was built in 1776, and the ch. of the Assumption of the Virgin, which stands on a rock, in 1700. There are 2 Roman Catholic places of worship in the town. Of these the cathedral was founded by Samuel Bishop of Kief and Chernigoff. The Catholic monastery of the order of Bernardine monks was established in 1761 by Caetan Ilinsky. There is also a Jewish synagogue here. The trade of the place is insignificant, and is carried on mostly by Jews. There are 3 market-days during the week, and 2 fairs are held annually—the first on the 8th (20th) of July, and the second on the 14th (26th) August.

KIEF; for a description of which *vide* Rte. 12, Sect. I., RUSSIA.

ROUTE 45.

WARSAW TO LEMBERG, VIÂ LUBLIN, BY ROAD.

The mail-coach goes no farther than Zamosts, but there is a good road through Tomashov, on the frontier of the kingdom, to Lemberg. We need only point out—

Ryki, a small town, with a bridge over the Viepsh. In the ch. is the tomb of the father of King Stanislas Augustus Poniatowski. A road branches off to the fortress of Ivangorod. Pisciculture carefully pursued here.

Kurov, a small pretty town. A road hence to Pulavy, or Nova Alexandria.

Lublin, 137 v. from Warsaw, 19,000 Inhab.; chief town of province, of considerable beauty and antiquity. It has a good trade. Lublin was the seat of the old Polish Tribunals, and the place of meeting of several Diets, the most celebrated of which is that of 1569, which sanctioned the union of Lithuania with Poland (*vide* Rte. 1, Sect. I., RUSSIA). It contains a cathedral, and the Palace of the Tribunals.

Piaski, 22½ v. beyond Lublin. The highway to Podolia and Odessa passes through this town.

Krasnystaf, 4000 Inhab.

Zamosts, a town of 4000 Inhab., formerly fortified. In 1813 the Polish General Hauke was besieged in it by the Russians, and only surrendered at the end of the campaign. This town was once the property of the Zamoiski family. The Hetman John Zamoiski fortified it at his expense. He also founded a university there, which was suppressed in 1820, on the establishment of a university at Warsaw. There is a pretty ch. in the town, and in one of the chapels is a picture attributed to Raphael. John Zamoiski lies buried there. Leaving the kingdom at Tomaskov, the traveller will pass *Zolkief*, the birthplace of John III. Sobieski, on his way to

LEMBERG, the capital of Austrian Galicia.

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GRAND DUCHY OF FINLAND.

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SECTION IV.—FINLAND.

INTRODUCTION.

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1.—Historical Notice.

The superficial area of Finland comprises an extent of 6844 geographical miles. Fertile plains occur on the W. and S.W. coasts, where they have been formed by the recession of the sea. It has been proved that, in the space of a centy., the western coast as far as Wasa has risen 4½ ft., while the remaining portion of the coast has not risen 2 ft. during the same period. The other parts of Finland abound with mountains and lakes, and, with the exception of some portions of North America, there is no country so covered with water as Finland. It is probably owing to this circumstance that the name of the country, "Finland," derives its origin from the ancient word "fennen," signifying a morass; in the Finnish language it is called "Suomi," which has almost a similar meaning. It is to be observed that there is a distinction in the two denominations of "Finlander," and "Finn;" the former is applied to all the inhab. of Finland, and the latter only to those who belong to the Finnish race. The Finnish people belong to the Caucasian family, and it is supposed that they originally came from the foot of the Altai Mountains. Traversing the Ural, they passed through Russia, leaving fragments of their race in the provinces of Perm, Viatka, Archangel, and Olonetz. The Cheremisses in the province of Kazan, and the Samoyedes on the borders of the White Sea, as well as the Esthonians and the Hungarians, belong to the Finnish race. The Laplanders were the first comers; they settled on the southern shores of the Baltic, from whence they were driven away to the N. by other tribes, and they have now been expelled to the utmost limits of cultivation. In the year 1249 there were still a great many Laplanders near Tavastehus. The Tavastehuses and the Carels established themselves in Ingria and Finland, the former occupying the south-western part of the country, and the latter the

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eastern. The Finns were in ancient times divided into separate tribes, who were always at war with each other; no organised system of government existing amongst them. They lived together in societies composed of a great many families, their women enjoying great liberty, and being held in great respect. They understood agriculture, and possessed a few rude laws.

Finland excited the covetousness of her neighbours at a very early date, and she had to defend herself on the one hand from the attacks of the Russians, and, on the other, from those of the Swedes. In 1157, at the instigation of the Pope, St. Eric, King of Sweden, undertook a crusade against the Finns with the object of converting them, as well as in order to put an end to their depredations on the Swedish coast, an occasion on which he founded the town of Åbo. But it was only after the lapse of 150 years that the power of Sweden was firmly established by Birger Jarl, who built the town of Tavastehus. After the conquest of Wyburg in 1293, the Swedes were brought into direct contact with the Russians, with whom the first treaty of peace was made on the banks of the Neva in 1323, when it was decided that the river Rajajoki should be the recognised boundary between the two countries: a boundary that divides the two countries to the present day. From that period Finland became a Swedish province, placed in all respects on the same political footing as the other provinces of the kingdom, the Finlanders sending representatives to the Swedish Diet. Its history merged into that of Sweden, and the wars with Russia, which had been confined to petty incursions, assumed more extensive dimensions after the accession of Ivan I., and continued with some short intervals until 1617; when, during the reign of Gustavus Adolphus, the frontier was secured by the conquest of Kexholm and Ingria, which were ceded by the treaty of Stolbova. During a period of about 70 years Finland was not affected by the war that was waged; but, between the years 1692 and 1726, it was visited by such great and numerous calamities as are seldom recorded in the history of nations. During the great famine between the years 1692 and 1696 there perished in the province of Åbo alone 60,000 persons, and, in many parts of the country, the churches, owing to the extinction of the population, were obliged to be closed. In 1699 the great war with Russia, which lasted 21 years, commenced. Thousands of Finlanders perished in the wars of Charles XII.; 5 regiments completely disappeared during the march into the Ukraine and at Poltava, having been either destroyed or captured. In the province of Åbo 40,000 men were enlisted as soldiers between the years 1700 and 1709. Between the years 1710 and 1715 the Russians invaded the whole of Finland, and it was only when the peace of Nystadt was signed in 1721 that Finland, with the exception of the province of Wyburg, was restored to Sweden after having been occupied by Russia for 6 years. In 1721 the entire population of Finland amounted to 200,000 or 250,000 persons. Another famine, however, appearing between the years 1723-6, it was only towards the close of that period, owing to the efforts of the Government and the beneficial effects of peace, that the country began to wear a somewhat prosperous aspect; and by the year 1738 the population had already increased to 413,000 persons. Peace, however, was not of long duration, for the Swedes, anxious to regain possession of their ancient provinces, declared war again in 1741; but, owing to a want of

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money and foresight, the most necessary preparations were not made. The army was in a disorganised condition, and, after a defeat at Willmanstrand, was obliged to retreat to Helsingfors, where it was surrounded by the Russians. A want of provisions, clothing, and forage obliged the army to capitulate on the 23rd of August, 1742. Sweden was at that period divided into two contending political parties, both aspiring to power; the peace party gaining greater ascendency as the war proved more and more disastrous. The influence of this party extended to the officers of the army, and paralysed to a certain degree the action of the Commander-in-chief. To complete the disorder that reigned in the army, two of the most responsible Generals were recalled to Sweden a few days before the capitulation of the army, and paid with their lives the faults committed by their faction. They were accused of treachery and sentenced to death: an accusation of which history has fully acquitted them, condemning them only for accepting a responsibility to which they were not equal, and for having provided in so inefficient a manner for the wants of the forces under their command. By the peace of Åbo, in 1743, the towns of Willmanstrand, Fredrikshamn, and Nystadt were ceded, and the river Kymen, near Lovisa, was fixed upon as the boundary-line. The same desire to regain the lost provinces induced Gustavus III. to commence a war in 1788, when he himself headed an army; but the tragical Anjala conspiracy, so celebrated in history, obliged him soon to return to Sweden, and a favourable opportunity for action was thus lost. A conspiracy had been formed by 206 officers: one section was for declaring Finland independent under the protection of Russia, the other for limiting the power of the King. The King having violated the constitution by undertaking a war of aggression without the consent of the Diet, the conspirators made this a pretext for inducing the army to disobey his orders. In the following year, 1789, the small fleet of gunboats was destroyed at Svensksund by the Prince of Nassau. In 1790 the King resolved on taking Wyborg; and the Swedish fleet, which had already fought an undecided battle at Hogland, proceeded to the Gulf of Wyborg, where it was blockaded by the Russian fleet. The Swedish fleet numbered 25 vessels of the line and 13 frigates, and the Russian consisted of 32 vessels of the line, 8 two-deckers, and 11 frigates. After remaining in front of Wyborg for the space of a month without taking it, the King found himself obliged to force a passage through the Russian ships. This desperate resolution was executed on the 3rd of July, and on the 4th and 5th of the same month the Swedish fleet arrived at Sveaborg, consisting only of 14 vessels of the line and 9 frigates. Some days after this event the Prince of Nassau attacked the little Swedish fleet on the same spot as the preceding year, but with a result altogether different, for the Russians lost 53 vessels and 4000 men. By the peace of Warela, signed in the same year, all matters were suffered to remain on the same basis as they had stood before the war. The last war, which ended in the conquest of Finland, was commenced in the month of February, 1808, by the Russians, who, while having no pretext for taking the field, crossed the frontier without even a preliminary declaration of hostilities. They were not wrong in considering the opportunity favourable for the prosecution of their plans; for, although

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the last Swedish corps, crossing over the ice into Sweden, did not quit the islands of Åland before the month of March, 1809, the fate of Finland had already been decided on the 3rd of May, 1808, by the surrender of Sveaborg.

The little army of Finland retired towards the north, resisting the enemy wherever there was a chance of success, and it was even victorious in some small engagements, as at Siikajoki, Revolax, Pieskkila, Lappo, and Alavo. Being still pursued, General Adlercreutz decided to offer the disastrous battle at Orawais, which was the last remarkable effort during this war. During fourteen hours, 3500 Swedes and Finlanders fought against 8500 Russians, and it was only owing to a reinforcement of 2000 men that the victory was at last decided in favour of the latter. By the peace of Fredrikshamn, in September, 1809, Finland, together with the islands of Åland, was ceded to Russia, and the river Torneao now marks the boundary-line of Sweden. In a manifesto addressed to the Diet at Borgå, the Emperor Alexander I. assured to the Finlanders the maintenance of their religion and the integrity of their constitution, as well as all the rights and privileges they had formerly enjoyed.

The constitution of Finland is similar to that of Sweden, and was introduced by Gustavus III. in 1772 and 1789. The power of the sovereign is very extensive, but personal liberty is protected by the laws, and the consent of the Diet must be obtained for the imposition of new taxes, and for the introduction of new criminal and civil laws. The Diet, which is composed of four estates, is only convoked when the sovereign judges it necessary to do so, and after that of Borgo, in 1809, no Diet assembled before the year 1863.

The executive power is vested in the Governor-General, and in the Imperial Senate at Helsingfors. State affairs, which have to be submitted to the Emperor, pass through the chancery of the Secretary of State for Finland, who resides at St. Petersburg. In 1811 the province of Wyborg was reunited to Finland, and the population is now composed of 1,749,000 Protestants, and of about 40,000 belonging to the Russian orthodox Church.

2.—Language.

The Finnish language (Suomen Kieli) is entirely different from all the other European languages, and belongs to the family called by philologists the Ural-Altaic. Its peculiar characteristic is, that all derivation, declination, and conjugation, is effected by means of suffixes, and thus the root invariably forms the beginning of every word. The conjunctions are not very numerous, as their place in the connexion of the parts of a sentence is frequently supplied by certain nominal or adverbial parts of speech. Of prepositions there are hardly any whatever; a small number of *post-positions*, and the case-terminations, of which there are fifteen, discharge their office. The language is rich in derived verbs; subjoins to the cardinal numbers the objects to which they refer, in the singular number; recognises no grammatical distinction of genders; and has no articles. One peculiarity which all the languages of Finnish source possess in common is the *vowel-harmony*, i.e. the law that the vowel in the syllables of inflexion (in which, therefore, it often occurs that the consonants alone remain

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unchanged) is entirely dependent on the vowels in the root. Thus for example:—

Kala (fish) takes, in the inessive case, the form of *Kalassa* (in the fish); and

Kylä (village), the form *Kylässä* (in the village).

The terminations, therefore, are twofold, either in *a*, or in *ä*. If the word has *a*, *o*, or *u*, in the root, the termination is *a*; if it has *y*, *ä*, or *ö*, in the root, the termination is *ä*. If *i* or *e* occurs in the root, both terminations are employed, but that in *ä* is the most common.

Another peculiarity of the language is this,—that not one purely Finnish word begins with two consonants.

The literature is still poor, and cannot well be otherwise, as, down to the present day, the Finnish language is spoken only by the peasants and the working classes, Swedish being the official language, and that of the upper classes. The oldest Finnish book, a Prayer-Book, was printed in the year 1544. The New Testament and Psalter, translated by Michael Agricola, the Bishop of Åbo, was published in 1548; the whole Bible did not appear till 1642, nearly a hundred years later, when it was published under the auspices of the University of Åbo, which had been founded in 1640. From that time the language was only employed in works of a religious character, until 1804, when Henric Gabriel Porthan, Professor at Åbo, directed the attention of the learned world generally, and his own countrymen in particular, to its richness and capability of further development. After Finland had been united with Russia in 1809, and the Finnish nation was thrown more entirely upon its own resources, the language of the country was to some extent restored. Since Elias Lönnret discovered the rich treasures of Finnish popular poetry, which he took down just as he heard it from the people during wanderings through the whole country, extending over many years; and since 'Kalewala,' the national epic, appeared in print in 1835, translated into German by the Academician A. Schiefner, of St. Petersburg, it has been the endeavour of young Finland to develop Finnish into a language of culture and refinement; Swedish having hitherto been the medium of all intellectual and literary activity. At the present time there are two Professors at the University of Helsingfors, who deliver their lectures in Finnish; and it has even been attempted to translate Schiller and Shakspeare into it. An important epoch for the future of Finland was introduced by the imperial manifesto of the 10th of February, 1865, which ordains that all persons entering the public service in Finland must henceforth learn Finnish, in order that it may become the official language of the Grand Duchy after the year 1883.

The pronunciation of Finnish is easy. Every syllable is pronounced just as it is spelt. Long vowels are written double. The accent is always on the first syllable.

The Alphabet.

A a in Finnish has the sound of a in far.
B b occurs only in foreign names.
C c " " and has the sound of s before e, i, y, and that of k before a, o, u, ö.

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D d has the sound of d in day.
E e ,, e met.
F f ,, f fat.
G g* is a nasal consonant; occurs only after n, and is pronounced like g in strong.
H h has the sound of h in hunt; at the end of syllables, often like the Celtic gutteral kh, as pehko (bush), pronounced pekh-ko.
I i has the sound of e in me.
J j ,, j hallelujah.
K k ,, k keen.
L l ,, l lay.
M m ,, m may.
N n ,, n nay.
O o ,, o not.
P p ,, p pay.
Q q occurs only in foreign names.
R r has the sound of r in ray, and is always distinctly pronounced.
S s *f* ,, s say.
T t ,, t tailor.
U u ,, oo root.
W w V v ,, v vale.
X x occurs only in foreign names.
Y y has the sound of the French u in sur.
Z z occurs only in foreign names.
Ä ä has the sound of ea in swear.
Ö ö ,, u but. / i girl. / ea earl.

Diphthongs.

ie is a diphthong, pronounced as in fancier.
uo has the sound of the Italian uo in buona.
yö ,, nearly as eou in extraneous.
ai ,, of ie in pie.
ei ,, i slight.
oi ,, oi spoil.
ui like oo-ee; a quick contraction as in the French Louis.
yi has the sound of ui in the French puis, quickly contracted.
äi ,, ie tie.
öi ,, the German öi quickly contracted. / or ,, eu in feuer (fire).
au ,, the Italian *au* in audace.
eu like ày-oo, f. i. neula (needle) is pronounced like này-oolah, or nà-oolah.
iu like ee-oo, f. i. kiuru (lark) is pronounced like kèeooroo, quickly contracted.
ou like ò-oo, f. i. koura (gripe) is pronounced like kò-oorah, quickly contracted.
äy like ou in mouth.
öy like the German sound öü, quickly contracted.

* The *g* has the nasal sound even when at the commencement of the following syllable, as *Kunin-gas* (king) is pronounced *Kooning-ass*, the pure *g* or *gay* sound not being heard.

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3.—Words and Phrases.

The emperor	*Keisari.*
The empress	*Keisarinna.*
The crown prince	*Perintö-ruhtinas.*
A grand duke	*Suuri-ruhtinas.*
A prince	*Ruhtinas.*
A count	*Kreivi.*
A noble	*Aatelinen.*
The lord	*Herra.*
Sir, or Mr.	*Herra.*
The head of a village	*Kylän wanhin.*
A fisherman	*Kalamies.*
An employé	*Wirkamies.*
A peasant	*Talonpoika.*
A policeman	*Polisi-mies.*
A blacksmith	*Rautaseppä.*
A drojky or sledge-driver	*Iswossikka, Ajomies.*
A coachman	*Ajaja, renki.*
A postilion	*Hollimies.* / *Postiljuoni (of the Post Office).*
A waiter	*Passari.*
A porter	*Portin wartia.*
A water-carrier	*Vedenkulettaja.*
A foreigner	*Ulkomaalainen.*
Chief city	*Pääkaupunti.*
A town	*Kaupunti.*
A street	*Katu.*
A cross-street	*Syrjäkatu.*
A square	*Tori.*
A market	*Kauppatori.*
A row of shops	*Puoti-riwi.*
A shop	*Puoti.*
A quay	*Rantakatu.*
A gateway	*Portti.*
Outer door	*Ulko-owi.*
An island	*Saari.*
A garden	*Yrtti-tarha.*
A field	*Keto.*
A cathedral	*Tuomio-kirkko.*
A church	*Kirkko.*
A belfry	*Kello-kastari.*
A cemetery	*Hautausmaa.*
A monastery	*Luostari.*
A palace	*Palatsi, howi.*
An hotel	*Hotelli.*
A restaurant	*Rawintola.*
A house	*Talo, kartano.*
A courtyard	*Piha.*
A villa	*Huwila.*
A room	*Kammari, suoja.*
A chemist's	*Apteekki.*
The parade-ground	*Parati-kenttä.*
A barrack	*Kasarmi.*
A fort	*Linna.*
A bridge	*Silta.*
A river	*Wirta, joki.*
A village	*Kylä.*
A road	*Tie.*
A hill	*Wuori.*
The bath-house	*Sauna.*
A post station	*Hollipaikka.*
The Exchange	*Pörssi.*
English Ambassador	*Englannin lähettiläs.*
English Consul	*Englannin Konsul.*
To write	*Kirjoittaa.*
Paper	*Paperi.*
Ink	*Läkki.*
Pen	*Pännä, kynä.*
Pencil	*Lyijys-pännä.*
To eat	*Syödä, ruokaella.*
To drink	*Juoda.*
To breakfast	*Murkinoida.*
Breakfast	*Murkina.*
To dine	*Syödä päiwällistä.*
Dinner	*Päiwällinen.*
To sup	*Illastella.*
Supper	*Illallinen.*
A portion	*Portsia.*
Soup	*Suppi.*
An ice	*A la glace.*
Cabbage soup	*Kaali-suppi.*
Pie	*Piirakka.*
A roast	*Paisti.*
Beef	*Raawaan liha.*
Veal	*Wasikan liha.*
Mutton	*Lampaan liha.*
Cutlets	*Kotlettia.*
Beefsteak	*Häränpaistia.*
Fish	*Kala.*
Ham	*Pöysti, kinkku.*
A fowl	*Lintu.*
A hen	*Kana.*
A chicken	*Kananpoika.*
A hare	*Jänis.*
A partridge	*Metsäkana.*
Hazel-grouse (*Tetrao bonasia*)	*Pyy.*
Black cock	*Teiri.*
Capercailzie	*Metso.*
Potatoes	*Potaattia.*

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Peas	*Herneitä.*
Cucumbers	*Kurkkuja.*
Apples	*Omenia.*
Nuts	*Pähkinöitä.*
White bread	*Walkea leipä.*
Black bread	*Musta leipä.*
Pancakes	*Pannun Kakkuja.*
Cheese	*Juustoa.*
Butter	*Woita.*
Eggs	*Munia.*
Cream	*Päällistä, Taaletta.*
Milk	*Maitoa.*
Wine	*Wiiniä.*
Pears	*Perunoita.*
Corn brandy	*Wiinaa.*
Beer	*Olutta.*
Coffee	*Kahwea.*
Tea	*Teetä.*
Sugar	*Sokeria.*
Water	*Wettä.*
A glass of water	*Lasillinen wettä.*
Hot water	*Kiehuwata wettä.*
Cold water	*Kylmää wettä.*
Salt	*Suolaa.*
Pepper	*Pippuria.*
Vinegar	*Ätikkää.*
Mustard	*Sinappia.*
A trunk	*Arkku, Kirstu.*
Portmanteau	*Kapsäkki.*
Travelling-bag	*Matka-pussi.*
Box or case	*Wakka, rasia, laatikko.*
A tea-urn	*Samowari.*
A tea-pot	*Tee-kannu.*
A pail	*Ämpäri, kippa.*
A bottle	*Puteli.*
A glass	*Juoma-lasi.*
A cup	*Kuppi.*
A wine-glass	*Ryyppy-lasi.*
A plate	*Talrekki, lautanen.*
A knife	*Weitsi.*
A fork	*Kahweli.*
A spoon	*Lusikka.*
A table	*Pöytä.*
A bed	*Sänky.*
A stove	*Uuni.*
Fire	*Tulta, walkeaa.*
A light	*Kynttilä.*
A napkin	*Salwetti.*
A duster	*Riepu.*
A hat	*Hattu.*
A fur cloak	*Turkki.*
A pair of boots	*Saappaat.*
A bath	*Kylpy.*
A dressing-gown	*Yö-takki, halatti.*
A boat	*Wene.*
A carriage	*Waunu.*
A cart	*Kärrit, rattaat.*
A wheel	*Pyörä.*
The pole	*Aisa.*
A cord	*Nuora.*
A horse	*Hewonen.*
Horses	*Hewosia.*
Hay	*Heiniä.*
Straw	*Olkia.*
A book	*Kirja.*
A whip	*Piiska.*
A snow-storm	*Tuisku, Pyry.*
Ice	*Jää.*
Half	*Puoli.*
A quarter	*Neljännes.*
Great	*Suuri, iso.*
Little	*Pieni, wähä.*
Beautiful	*Kaunis, ihana.*
Old	*Wanha.*
New	*Uusi.*
Yes	*Nün.*
No	*Ei.*
Good, very well	*Oikeen, hywästi.*
Not good, not well	*Wäärin, pahasti, huonosti.*
Bring	*Tuokaa.*
For me	*Minulle.*
More	*Enemmän.*
Less	*Wähemmän.*
That	*Tämä.*
Enough	*Kyllä, piisaa.*
Not enough	*Ei piisaa wielä.*
Too long	*Aiwan kawaan.*
Give	*Anna.*
Give me	*Anna minulle.*
Give us	*Anna meille.*
Now	*Nyt.*
It cannot be done	*Sitä ei woi tehdä.*
Do better	*Tee paremmin.*
Father	*Isä.*
Mother	*Aiti, emo.*
Brother	*Weli.*
Sister	*Sisar.*

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DIALOGUES.—KANSSA-PUHEITA.

Good day.	*Hywää päiwää.*
Good night.	*Hywää yötä.*
Good bye.	*Jääkää hywästi.*
If you please.	*Olkaa niin hywä.*
Thank you.	*Paljon kiitosta.*
Here.	*Tässä.*
Who is there?	*Kuka siellä?*
Here, here, sir.	*Tänne, tänne herra.*
Come here.	*Tule tänne.*
Hollo! here.	*Hoi! kuule.*
I come directly.	*Minä tulen paikalla.*
I hear and obey.	*Minä noudatan käskyänne.*
Directly.	*Paikalla, heti.*
Let us go (on foot).	*Astukaamme, menkäämme.*
Let us go (in a carriage).	*Lähtekäämme, ajakaamme.*
Go on.	*Mene tiehesi.*
Drive gently.	*Hiljaa.*
Never mind, or nothing.	*Ei mitään.*
Hurry quick.	*Joudu pian.*
Drive faster.	*Mene wälemmin.*
Have a care.	*Kawata.*
Give room, give place.	*Pois tieltä; tie auki.*
To the right.	*Oikeaan.*
To the left.	*Wasempaan.*
Go further on.	*Pois etemmäksi.*
Drive home.	*Kotia Aja.*
Stop.	*Seisata.*
Tell me.	*Sanokaa minulle.*
What is it?	*Mikä se?*
How do they call it?	*Miksi sitä kutsutaan?*
What does it cost?	*Paljonko maksaa? Mikä hinta?*
How much the arshin?	*Paljonko arsinalta?*
How much the pound?	*Paljonko naulalta?*
It is dear.	*Se on kallis.*
It is much.	*Se on paljon.*
It is cheap.	*Se on huokeata.*
Can you give change?	*Woitteko waihtaa rahaa?*
Ditto.	*Onko teillä takaisin antaa?*
I don't know.	*En tiedä.*
Not wanted.	*Ei huoli.*
I won't have.	*En huoli.*
Is it ready?	*Onko se walmis?*
Set the tea-urn.	*Walmista samowari.*
Give us a spoon.	*Anna meille lusikka.*
What is to be done?	*Mitäs tehdä?*
What's o'clock?	*Mones tunti?*
In how many hours?	*Monessako tunnissa?* or *monenko tunnin perästä?*
Is it possible?	*Onko se mahdollista?*
Where is the inn?	*Missä kesthiewari?*
How many versts?	*Montako wirstaa?*

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Where is the landlord?	*Missä isäntä?*
I will pass the night here.	*Minä tahdon olla tässä yötä.*
When do you start?	*Milloinka te nousette?*
To-day.	*Tänäpänä.*
To-morrow.	*Huomenna.*
In an hour.	*Tunnin perästä.*
It is time to be off.	*Aika on lähteä.*
Which is the way to ——?	**Mistä tiè menee -aan, -een, -iin, -oon -uun, -yyn, -ään, -öön.*
Pray show me the way.	*Olkaa niin hywä, näyttäkää minulle tie.*
Where is the fisherman?	*Missä kalamies?*
What kind of a road is it?	*Mikä tie tämä on?*
Are the horses to?	*Owatko hewoset waljaissa?*
What is to pay for them?	*Paljonko kyytiraha tekee?*
Drink money.	*Juomarahaa.*
I will give you drink money.	*Minä annan juomarahaa.*
I will not give you drink money.	*Minä en anna juomarahaa.*
What station is it?	*Mikä hollipaikka tämä on?*
How long do we stop?	*Montako minuttia viiwymme tässä?*
Where is the refreshment-room?	*Missä rawinto-huone?*
Where is the W. C.?	*Missä ihmisten ulko-huone?*
Where is the telegraph-office?	*Missä telegrafi-laitos?*
Where is the luggage?	*Missä tawarat?*

Names of the Months, Days of the Week, etc.

Kuukausien nimet.		*Wiikon päiwat, j. n. e.*	
January	*Tammikuu.*	Wednesday	*Keskiwiikko.*
February	*Helmikuu.*	Thursday	*Torstai.*
March	*Maaliskuu.*	Friday	*Perjantai.*
April	*Huhtikuu.*	Saturday	*Lauwantai.*
May	*Toukokuu.*	Sunday	*Sunnuntai.*
June	*Kesäkuu.*	Winter	*Talwi.*
July	*Heinäkuu.*	Summer	*Kesä, suwi.*
August	*Elokuu.*	A year	*Wuosi.*
September	*Syyskuu.*	A month	*Kuukausi.*
October	*Lokakuu.*	A week	*Wiikko.*
November	*Marraskuu.*	A day	*Päiwä.*
December	*Joulukuu.*	An hour	*Tunti.*
Monday	*Maanantai.*	Half an hour	*Puolituntia.*
Tuesday	*Tiistai.*		

The Numerals.—Luwut.

one, *yksi.*	seven, *seitsemän.*
two, *kaksi.*	eight, *kahdeksan.*
three, *kolme.*	nine, *yhdeksän.*
four, *neljä.*	ten, *kymmenen.*
five, *wiisi.*	eleven, *yksi-toista.*
six, *kuusi.*	twelve, *kaksi-toista.*

* Ex. gr. Hamina*aan*, to Fredrikshamn; Helsinki*in*, to Helsingfors; Kuopio*on*, to Kuopio; Oulu*un*, to Uleaborg; Jywäskylä*än*, to Jywäskylä, &c. The harmony of the vowels always observed, *except* in foreign names—London*iin*, Brysseli*in*, to London, to Brussels, where *iin* is the rule.

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And so on, always adding *toista* to each number up to
twenty, *kaksi-kymmentä.*
twenty-one, *kaksi-kymmentä-yksi.*
twenty-two, *kaksi-kymmentä-kaksi.*
And so on, always adding the unit up to one hundred, as
thirty, *kolme-kymmentä.*
forty, *neljä-kymmentä.*
fifty, *wiisi-kymmentä.*
sixty, *kuusi-kymmentä.*
seventy, *seitsemän-kymmentä.*
eighty, *kahdeksan-kymmentä.*
ninety, *yhdeksän-kymmentä.*
one hundred, *sata.*
two hundred, *kaksi sataa.*
three hundred, *kolme sataa, etc.*
one thousand, *tuhatta.*
two thousand, *kaksi tuhatta.*
three thousand, etc., *kolme tuhatta, j. n. e.*

4.—Measures, Weights, and Coins.

Measures of Length.—Pituuden Mitat.

1 *yard* (inches).	=	3·08 *Finnish* (*foot* =) *jalkaa*, 1 jalka = 12 tuumaa
1 tuuma	=	12 linjaa.
6 jalkaa	=	1 syltä.
2 jalkaa	=	1 kyynärä.
1 kyynärä	=	4 waaksaa eli korttelia.
1 waaksa	=	6 tuumaa.
1 penikulma	=	10 wirstaa.
1 wirsta	=	600 syltä.

Measures of Capacity.—Awaruuden Mitat.

1 *kannu Finnish*	=	0·576 *gallons English.*
1 kannu	=	2 tuoppia.
1 tuoppi	=	4 korttelia.
1 kortteli	=	4 jumfrua.

Dry Measure.—Kuiwatawarain Mitta.

1 *tynnyri*	=	4·536 *bushels.*
1 tynnyri	=	30 kappaa.
1 kappa	=	$2\frac{1}{10}$ kannua.
1 nelikko	=	$7\frac{1}{2}$ kappaa.

Weights.—Paino-mitta.

1 pound avoirdupois	=	1·067 lbs. (naulaa) Finnish avoirdupois.
1 naula	=	32 luotia.
1 luoti	=	4 kintiniä.
20 naulaa (lb.)	=	1 (l. lb.) leiwiskää.
20 leiwiskä (l. lb.)	=	1 (s. lb.) sippunta.
1 laiwan lästi	=	228 l. lb. (leiwiskää).

Coinage.

Finland having lately obtained an independent currency, the people calculate in marks and pennies, of which 100 to the mark. One mark is equal to 25 copecks; consequently, 4 marks are equal to 1 *Silver* ruble; but when changing Russian *paper* money into Finnish marks at the present exchange, only 3 marks and 45 pennies will be allowed. In August, 1866, the exchange was so low as 2 marks 80 pennies per Russian ruble. The traveller will have no difficulty in ascertaining the current exchange by merely referring to any of the public newspapers kept on board the steamers. At the rates published there, Mr. Heimberger, agent, at Helsingfors, for the Scandia Insurance Company, will be happy to exchange any amount.

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5.—Steamboats.

The most convenient and agreeable mode of visiting Finland is by sea. There are now four excellent and commodious steamships plying regularly during the summer months between St. Petersburg and Stockholm, by one of which the tourist (after having seen to his passport) should secure a passage as soon as possible. These vessels at present leave either end of the line, that is to say St. Petersburg and Stockholm, every *Tuesday* and *Friday* morning; the boat from St. Petersburg calls and remains the first night at Wyborg, the second at Helsingfors (there crossing the boat from Stockholm), the third at Åbo, and Stockholm on the 4th. The boat from Stockholm calls and remains the first night at Åbo, the second at Helsingfors (there crossing the St. Petersburg boat), the third at Wyborg, and reaches St. Petersburg on the 4th. The voyage is thus completed in four days, with only about 50 hours of actual travelling, during which time the vessel winds her intricate and tortuous but picturesque course amongst the innumerable islands on the Finnish coast. Besides the above, there are two steamers plying weekly between Helsingfors and St. Petersburg, one *viâ* Reval, and the other *viâ* Fredrikshamn, Wyborg, &c. There is also a fine line of steamers plying regularly between St. Petersburg, Helsingfors, Åbo, Björneborg, and up the Gulf of Bothnia to Uleaborg and Torneå.

6.—Travelling—Posting, Mail Coaches, etc.

Between May and October, that is to say as long as the sea is open, the best mode of reaching St. Petersburg from Stockholm is by steamer. The scenery of the coast, which is far more interesting than that inland, is seen to greater advantage, and with half the trouble and expense. Moreover, with the exception of the road between Wyborg and St. Petersburg, there are no public conveyances, not even between Åbo and Helsingfors, the old and modern capitals of Finland. Between Wyborg and St. Petersburg there is sometimes a coach, but the days of departure cannot by any means be relied on. The best, at least the most comfortable, mode of journeying by land, is in a private carriage; and if the tourist has not the good fortune to possess one, he had better supply himself with one at Stockholm; a travelling calèche, with harness complete, may be purchased there for about 20*l*. At Åbo, being at the mercy of the landlord, he will pay more; moreover, as the stock of carriages there consists of patched-up vehicles which have been purchased from travellers returning from Russia, the chances are that the tourist will, before he reaches Helsingfors, find himself brought to a stand-still on the road-side, by a regular break-down of his crazy machine. Carrioles, similar to those used in Norway and Sweden, are the carriages most generally in use in Finland, and by far the best adapted for speed, particularly where the road is sandy, which is the case, more or less, nearly all the way from Åbo to Helsingfors, and also along the shore of the Gulf of Bothnia to Bjorneborg, and they far excel vehicles of any other construction for whirling down hill at full gallop,—the only plan of descending the sharp pitches in the road with which the

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Finnish horses appear to be acquainted. Besides the carriole there is another species of vehicle, called a *kibitka*, a long narrow cart without springs, and covered with a kind of leather hood, extending over about one-half of the carriage. The bottom of the kibitka is usually provided with a feather-bed, or a thick covering of hay or straw, and on this the traveller reclines at full length. As to repose, it is doubtful whether any will be obtained in such a vehicle; in addition to which, the traveller sees nothing whatever of the country through which he passes. This kibitka is an introduction from Russia; the really national carriage of the Finlander is a machine called a *bondkara*, but the traveller should reflect seriously before he submits his body to the indescribable agonies created by the cart so called, unless, indeed, it is his intention to travel in the *telega* when he reaches Russia; in this case it will be well for him to accustom his bones and muscles to the dislocations which he will be subjected to in the *bondkara*, for, though these two vehicles are equally rough, the roads in Finland are far superior to those in Russia. This machine, which has no springs, is nothing more than an oblong kind of box without a back, placed on an axle-tree and two wheels, and a board is nailed or tied to the sides like the seat of a taxed cart; on this bench the traveller and the postilion are seated, and there is no slight difficulty in keeping an equilibrium, while on bad parts of the road it is sometimes necessary to cling firmly to it with both hands. Scarcely, too, has the tourist got a little accustomed to the sway and play of this horrid cart, when he finds himself at a post station, where he is obliged to turn out and get into another bondkara, the bench of which is perhaps tied at a different angle from the last. The roads, however, with the exception of one or two sandy stages, are excellent from Åbo to within fifty miles of St. Petersburg, and ten miles an hour may be accomplished; but it will take a great deal of patience, and all the traveller's muscle and nerve, to get over these last fifty miles. Verst-posts are erected along the roads, and the distance to each town is inscribed on them. In winter there is a regular road across the Gulf of Bothnia to Sweden; and also between Helsingfors and Revel. In March, 1809, Barclay de Tolly crossed over with a division of the Russian army from Wasâ to Umeâ in Sweden.

One great advantage in Finland is that the traveller is not obliged to send on a courier. Post-horses, supplied by the neighbouring farmers, are always in readiness at the stations; and so far from there being any delay, half a dozen Finlanders will frequently be found quarrelling for the honour of earning copecks, and displaying their respective ponies to the best advantage, in order to procure a selection in their favour; and, generally speaking, by the time the traveller has written his name, &c., in the *dagbok*, and paid the boy who takes back the horses, everything will be found in readiness for a fresh start.

The price of post-horses is much lower than either in Norway or Sweden, being 2 silver copecks for each horse per verst. But on quitting Åbo. Helsingfors, Lovisa, Frederickshamn, and Wyborg, it is 4 silver copecks per verst for each horse for the first stage. The boy or man who drives is amply satisfied with about 6 or 7 copecks per post, which may be taken on the average at about 15 versts. Travelling with two horses, the entire expense does not exceed 4*d.* per English mile. Between Wyborg and St. Petersburg the expense is somewhat greater, as the traveller has to pay

1½ silver ruble for a padarojna, and the drivers expect more in the neighbourhood of the capital; but even then the expense of actual travelling throughout the whole extent of Finland will not, on the average, exceed 5*d.* per English mile.

The regular charge for the operation of "smearing," as it is pronounced (though somewhat differently spelt), is 6 copecks, and travellers should on no account omit having it carefully done under their own inspection every morning before starting. The harness is so made as never to be detached from the carriage when the horses are changed. The traces are always of rope, as is not unfrequently the greater portion of the rest of the tackle; the reins are not crossed, as in England, but each horse is harnessed quite distinct from his fellow, and on reaching the station the ponies slip out of their trappings, and another pair, without even a bridle or halter, are brought out of the stable to take their places. This independent style of "putting to" is at first somewhat puzzling, particularly when the road is hilly, or runs along the verge of a precipice, or the bank of a mountain stream. It is surprising, however, how soon one gets accustomed to the random travelling over the wild countries of the north, where the roads are for the most part without fence or barrier of any kind, and where, in going down hill, it is absolutely impossible to stop. A low monotonous whistle, on reaching the top of a steep descent, will make the horses go slowly and carefully until they feel the carriage begin to press heavily upon them, and then away they go, through sand and stones, whirling round corners like the wind, until they reach the level ground, or, if the road ascends again, they continue their headlong speed to the summit of the next hill. It is quite useless to pull, as the bits are of the lightest description, and their mouths seem quite insensible to all the driver's efforts. They never stumble, and will generally gallop for versts without betraying any symptoms of distress. The posting being so economical, it will be no very great expense to pay the boys well, and twopence per stage will be considered very handsome: some persons pay only one penny. As soon as the traveller arrives at a station, he should call lustily for horses (in Swedish, hästar), adding as many words in that language signifying "make haste," as he can—thus, *strax*, *snart*, and *skynda*, all meaning the same thing, will be found of the greatest possible utility. The tourist must then march into the post-house, and ask for the *dag-bok*, in which every traveller must write his name, the number of horses he wants, whence he comes, whither he is going, and what, if any, complaints he has to make: all the columns are headed with the requisite explanations in Russian. Save when posting in one's own carriage, it will not be possible to keep pace with persons travelling in carrioles.

7.—General View of Finland.

The sea-coast of Finland presents throughout its entire extent the same succession of fiords and rocky headlands which encircle the whole seaward frontier of Sweden and Norway; but the dimensions of the fiords of Finland are far more limited than those to the west of the Gulf of Bothnia, seldom exceeding a few miles in extent, although their mouths contain an equal number of islands; some of which, as the isles of Sweaborg, have been converted into fortresses of great strength. The interior of Finland

is intersected and broken up by a vast number of inland lakes, shooting out their winding arms and branches in all directions; which, while they offer the greatest facilities for internal navigation, render land travelling circuitous and difficult. Many of the high roads pass over islands on these lakes, the natural strength of whose situation has been taken advantage of to cover them with batteries.

There is a most striking difference between the inhabitants of the Finnish provinces to the west and those to the east of Wyborg, more recently severed from Sweden, whose customs and manners, and even language, they had almost universally adopted. The Finlanders along the coast of the Gulf of Bothnia scarcely present any marked distinction from the people on the opposite shore of the Baltic; but the same good-humoured faces, and apparent anxiety to please, diminish in a very perceptible ratio as you advance further inland. Nearly the same dress, both of men and women, and the readiness with which they all speak Swedish, make the traveller almost forget that he is in a land that owns the sovereignty of the Tsar. Beyond Wyborg the traveller is suddenly thrown among a strange people: beards become almost universal, from the post-master to the driver—sheepskins are worn, and low-crowned hats with a profusion of buckles; the loose trowsers are tucked into the boots. Swedish is scarcely understood, and dollars and skillings are no longer current. The road becomes level, and wide plains spread their monotonous extent on all sides; the villages, formed of a long straight row of wooden cottages, lining the road on either side with their gable-ends, are all built exactly alike, and all still and silent, with scarce a living being to be seen, except a few melancholy-looking children and pigs—the latter certainly curiosities in their way, attenuated, half-starved looking animals, with sharp-pointed snouts.

The living in Finland is very tolerable, though certainly by no means luxurious: capercailzie, black-cock, hazel-grouse, and all sorts of fish are to be had in abundance during eight months of the year. When game is not in season, the tourist is strongly recommended to try the Finnish veal, which is most excellent, and equal to any fed in England; the beef, on the other hand, is miserable, lean, and tasteless.

Good Bavarian beer is to be had throughout the country.

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ROUTE.

ROUTE 55.

STOCKHOLM TO WYBORG, BY ABO AND HELSINGFORS.

Finland may be reached from Lubeck by steamer once a week to Helsingfors. Fare 30 rs. The most interesting route is by Gottenburg, and thence to Stockholm, by rail or canal. Passports must be *vised* by Russian consul at Stockholm before applying for a passage. Fare to Helsingfors 13 rubles, not inclusive of living. Steamers leave Stockholm every Tuesday morning for Åbo, Helsingfors, Wyborg, and St. Petersburg, passing round the Åland islands at noon.

1. Åland islands at the entrance of the Gulfs of Bothnia and Finland. The inhabitants (16,000) are principally sailors. The ruins of the fortress of Bomarsund, destroyed by an Anglo-French squadron in 1854, are situated on the largest island of the group. They will not be seen from the steamer.

2. Åbo.

The town of Åbo is reached at about 7 P.M. (*Inn:* The Society's House, on the Quay, the best.)

On arriving off the Aurajoki, the Åbo river, large vessels remain there and discharge their cargoes. The steamer, drawing but little water, proceeds at once to the town. On the hill near the entrance of the river, which is defended by the fort of Åbohus, now a prison, is the village of Boxholm, with its red, painted houses, principally inhabited by tradesmen and fishermen.

The first view of *Åbo* (pronounced Obo) is fine: its old castle stands full before you, with the remnant of its massive tower, that braved for centuries the assaults of time and the elements, while on the height beyond is seen the far-famed observatory, now used as a navigation school. Entering the river on which Åbo is built, the steamer anchors close to the Society's House, and the deck is soon crowded with customs officers, by whom the luggage of the passengers is searched. The passports are examined.

The streets of Åbo appear at first enormously wide, though they by no means exceed the usual dimensions of Russian towns; but the low style of building, almost universal in this town, and the number of sites at present unoccupied by houses, joined to the solitary appearance of its almost deserted thoroughfares, give an air of desolation to the whole place. The glory of Åbo has indeed departed. It had once a flourishing port and a well-attended university—its trade is now inconsiderable, and its university is removed to Helsingfors, the capital of Finland. A destructive fire, the ravages of which are even now not fully repaired, gave the final blow to its already sinking fortunes.

This fearful conflagration, which took place 4 Sept. 1827, consumed nearly the whole city, including the university and its valuable library, and other public buildings. The fire raged for two whole days, and was not extinguished until 786 houses, out of 1100, were a mass of blackened ruins. When the town was rebuilt, the public edifices, as well as the houses, were placed at a considerable distance from each other, and the town now covers as much ground as Dresden,

though its inhabitants do not exceed 20,000. Åbo is the most ancient city in Finland; its history being co-existent with the reign of Eric the Saint, that is from 1157-1160, the period at which Christianity was first introduced into this wild and cold region. The castle is as ancient as the town, and arrested more than once the onward march of the Russian armies. It was in the dungeons of this building that Eric XIV. was imprisoned previous to his death, which took place some time afterwards at Orbyhus. The castle is now used as a prison, and is garrisoned by half a battalion of infantry.

The *Cathedral* is also highly interesting, not however on account of its external appearance, which is coarse and heavy, but for the architectural structure of its interior, which is of three epochs. It is more particularly worthy of interest from its having been the cradle of Christianity in Finland—here the first episcopal chair was instituted, and for centuries the first families were buried. The vaults of the chapels are filled with their remains, and some of the monuments are not unworthy of attention. On one of them is an epitaph to Catharina Monsdotter, a girl taken from the ranks of the people by Eric XIV., and who, after having worn the Swedish diadem, returned to Finland and died in obscurity, while her royal husband ended his days in a prison. In the same chapel, and at the end of it, are two statues in white marble, the size of life, standing on a sarcophagus, supported by columns of black marble; these are the wealthy and powerful Clas Tott, grandson of Eric XIV., and his wife. The latter seems to have had a wish to perpetuate her admiration for a handsome toilette, for she is decked out with necklace and bracelets as if for a wedding. In a crypt under this monument lie the remains of Queen Christina of Sweden. In another chapel is the monument of Stalhandsk, one of the generals, and, we may add, heroes, of the Thirty Years' War. There is also a monument to Cockburn, a Scotchman, who served in the wars of Charles XII. The fire of 1827 completely gutted this church, and not only were the altar and organ destroyed, but even the bells were melted by the devouring element. Subscriptions have restored the cathedral, and a patriotic Finlander, a baker by trade, who had amassed about 2500*l.* in his business, and was without any near relative, left that sum to purchase an organ at his death. Effect was given to his wishes, and an organ of 5000 pipes, the largest in the North, now raises its decorated and painted head nearly to the roof of the building. The church contains several frescoes by Ekman, a Finlander. On the top of the granite steps which lead up to the cathedral, is an old rusty ring, to which offenders used to be attached and made to do penance. A statue of Professor Porthan stands near the cathedral. There is also a granite tombstone over his grave in the ch.-yard.

Gustavus Adolphus founded an academy here in 1630, which Christina subsequently elevated into a university. Åbo is distinguished by a treaty, being the spot on which the relations between Russia and Sweden were settled in 1743. Here, too, Alexander and Bernadotte concluded that treaty which arrayed Sweden against France.

3. Helsingfors.

The steamer will reach Helsingfors the day on which it leaves Åbo, after passing through most singular and interesting coast scenery; it may, however, be summed up in three words, sea, granite, firs,—yet these are so constantly varied in their position and circumstances that the effect cannot be said to be monotonous. The sea, in some instances, is as still as an inland lake, at others it may be heard beating furiously against the granite rocks to seaward; few vessels are visible, and those are principally very small craft, carrying wood or fish from the islands to the main land. The steamer passes close to the ruins of the forts at Hango Head.

The approach to Helsingfors by water is exceedingly striking. The harbour is very extensive and well protected by the works and fortress of *Sweaborg*: these are built on 7 islands, and from the extent of the fortifications, and the

strength of their position, have been termed the Gibraltar of the North. The original fortress was built by Count Ehrensword, High-Admiral of Sweden, whose dying request was that he should be buried there; on his monument is the following inscription:—"On this spot, and surrounded by his own work, repose the remains of the Count Auguste Ehrensword."—This fortress was the last rampart of Sweden against the Russians, and the rallying point of her troops and fleet. On the 6th of March, 1808, it was besieged by the Russians, and on the 6th of April Adm. Cronstedt, who defended the place with 6000 men and 2 frigates, concluded an armistice on condition that he would deliver up the fortress, with its garrison, its ships, and its plentiful munitions of war, provided he had not received by the 3rd of May a reinforcement of at least 5 ships-of-the-line; and as the reinforcement never arrived, the fortress was delivered to Gen. Suchtelen on the day stipulated. The secret motives of Adm. Cronstedt's conduct have never been satisfactorily explained. It has been affirmed on the one hand that the officers had become demoralised in courage by the sight of the sufferings to which their families were exposed, as well as by the news of the desperate condition of Finland and Sweden which Suchtelen took good care to forward to them; on the other hand, Adm. Cronstedt is directly accused of having been bribed by the Russians. The latter supposition has never been proved. After the capitulation Adm. Cronstedt retired to a small estate which he had always possessed, and where he lived honoured and esteemed by his neighbours until his death, which took place about 10 years later. He never entered the service of Russia, nor did he receive any marks of Imperial approval; and he died without leaving any fortune. Sweaborg was bombarded by an Anglo-French squadron in August, 1855.

It is not always that a traveller is permitted to visit the Fortress of Sweaborg without previously having obtained a ticket from the Police-office or the Governor-General. The forts are, however, well worth seeing, and 2 diminutive steamers leave every half-hour alternately from the town and forts, the fare being 10 copeks.

These steamers can be hired at the rate of 3 rubles per hour by visitors desirous of making an excursion amongst the islands in the neighbourhood of Helsingfors, in the so-called "Skärgård."

HELSINGFORS.—*Hotels:* The Society House, in the Great Square, and Kleineh's Hotel, both facing the harbour and close to the landing-place. The former has been rebuilt and modernised, and is preferable. The best room is 1 ruble per diem.

Steamers.—Every Sunday morning to Åbo and Stockholm, to Wyborg and St. Petersburg; every Monday morning to Reval and St. Petersburg; every Tuesday morning to Wyborg and St. Petersburg; every Thursday morning to Wyborg and St. Petersburg, to Åbo and Stockholm. Once a week to Åbo, Björnborg, Wasa, and Uleaborg, by Bothnian steamers.

The town of Helsingfors is, historically speaking, comparatively of modern creation, having been founded by Gustavus Wasa in the 16th centy.: its name came from a colony of the province of Helsingland, which had been established in the neighbourhood for several centuries. In 1639, however, the town changed its site, and the inhabitants moved their wooden houses nearer the sea-shore; and on the spot where Helsingfors now stands. War, plague, famine, and fire ravaged it, each in its turn, and the end of a century found it with a population of only 5000 souls; at the present moment it numbers 25,000, exclusive of the garrison. The Russians have greatly augmented and improved Helsingfors since it came into their possession, more particularly since the year 1819, when it became the capital of Finland; the removal to it of the University of Åbo, and the Senate, after the conflagration of that town in 1827, also materially increased its importance. The streets are long, large, and laid out at right

angles, as in most Russian towns. Two sides of the principal square are occupied by the Senate-house and University respectively; these are two very handsome buildings, and on the eastern side is a fine church, which, from its position and size, is a very splendid object. The houses are large and regular, and a handsome granite quay extends along the water in front of the town. Amongst the objects worthy of attention is the *Senate-house*. The chambers in which the various branches of the assembly meet for the ordinary purposes of business are simple, and furnished in good taste. The large hall, intended for the meeting of the senate on great occasions, contains a splendid throne for the emperor, who twice presided in person; it is hung with portraits of former governors of Finland. The remains of the *Library*, saved from the fire of Åbo, is at present preserved in this building. It consists of about 100,000 volumes. An extensive collection of historical documents, relating to the history of Finland, unfortunately fell a prey to the flames.

In the University, which has 5 faculties and 31 professors, may be seen the act which incorporated the University of Åbo; it is signed by the illustrious Axel Oxenstierna, his brother Gabriel, and Marshal Jacques de la Gardie. This was the oldest university in Russia, having been founded by Christina in 1630. Printing was not introduced into Finland until 1641, 11 years after the university was established, when Wald, a Swedish printer, made a contract with the rector, and established himself at Åbo. His salary was 10*l.* a year, besides which he received 18*d.* a sheet: and so small was his set of types, that he could only set up half a sheet at a time. The library, at this period, contained 21 volumes and a globe. There are several agreeable walks in the neighbourhood of Helsingfors; amongst them may be cited that to the forests of Standsvik, the solitary coast near Mailand, and the verdant gardens of Traëskenda, belonging to Mrs. Karamzin.

The *Museum* of the University contains an extensive collection of minerals, and objects of natural history: it is particularly rich in specimens of the zoology of Finland.

The *New Church* is in the form of a Greek cross: each side is terminated by a handsome portico of Corinthian columns, and a dome rises in the centre. It stands on a large mass of granite, and may be seen some miles from the town.

The *Assembly-Rooms* on the Esplanade, the barracks, and hospitals are fine buildings. It will be remarked that in Helsingfors the native granite rock frequently forms the foundation of these extensive edifices.

The *Botanical Garden*, about a mile from the town, is used as a public promenade, and commands a view of the surrounding country.

A fine view of the town may also be obtained from the *Observatory*, which stands on an eminence. It is fitted up with requisite instruments, and a series of important magnetic and astronomical experiments are being carried out in it.

A *bathing-house*, and an establishment for the manufacture of mineral waters, have been built near the town.

A magnificent and beautifully decorated theatre was completed in 1866, built after the model of the Dresden Opera House, in which performances are conducted in the Swedish language four times a week.

On entering the harbour of Helsingfors the traveller will observe an elegant and colossal *Greek Church*, with gilded spire, situated on an imposing eminence close to the sea. The painting in the interior of this church is very good, and well worthy of a visit.

4. Tavastehus.—A rly. unites Helsingfors with the town of Tavastehus, 80 m. distant in the interior of the country. Fare 3 rubles. Tavastehus is well worth visiting in summer time, as it is most picturesquely situated, and gives a good idea of Finnish lake-scenery. Small government steamboats go once or twice a week from Tavastehus up the river and lakes to Tammer-

fors, the Manchester of Finland, founded 1779, where a good number of Englishmen are employed in cotton-spinning. The waterfalls of Tammerfors, by which some of the cotton and flax-mills are worked, are very grand. Very good posting hence into the interior. The price of post-horses is 2½ copeks per verst, and 4 copeks on leaving towns.

5. Borgå.—Travellers may proceed from Helsingfors to Wyborg by an excellent road along the coast, passing through the towns of Borgo, Lovisa, Högfors, and Fredrikshamn.

Borgo is a town of 3000 Inhab., and the seat of a bishopric. It is of considerable historical celebrity, having been the place of meeting of the Diet of Finland in 1809.

The poet Runeberg resides here.

Henriksdal, 15 v.
Sibbo, 15½.
Norr Vrekoski, 12½.
Illby, 16.
Torsley, 13¾.

6. Lovisa, 60 versts from Borgo. One of its streets descends to the very sea-shore, while others are arranged in a kind of amphitheatre on the side of a hill. Lovisa was once a frontier post of the Swedes, but its importance ceased when these provinces were ceded to Russia. Some remains of its former defences are yet to be seen. Two or three massive walls with their embrasures, even now almost perfect, seem at a distance to command the road which approaches the town. The country beyond this is wild enough: no traces of cultivation can be discerned, and as far as the eye can reach it is one barren heath, with here and there a few boulder-stones, and fir-trees thinly scattered among the heather. The road, however, is excellent, hard, and smooth, and full of picturesque windings: and the traveller will be fairly hurled along at a rapid pace. Nervous people have no business to travel in Finland; the horses, though small, are full of life, and know of no other pace than the gallop, whether it is up or down hill. The traveller will, either on land or sea, thus speed on his way through Finland, and frequently without meeting one human being from one station to the next; the dark pines and massive boulder-stones (many of a magnitude which will astonish the traveller or any geologist who has not traversed the country), the red verst-posts and a ragged scanty flock are the only objects that meet the eye. In some places partial clearings, principally made by fire, add one new feature to the landscape; and the charred and blackened trunks of the larger trees, which have resisted the power of the flames, standing like gaunt sentinels in the black space around them, contrast strongly with the dark green of the living pines and the bright lichens of the boulder-stones scattered around them: many of these huge stones arise from the earth in single masses, and it was from one of these that the Alexander pillar in St. Petersburg was wrought. Other boulders may be seen heaped up one on the other in strange confusion and fantastic shapes, exactly as they lay when washed there by the deluge. The drive between Lovisa and the next station is very beautiful, and hill and vale are passed, with scarcely time to look down on the torrent that foams and boils below in its narrow and rocky bed, as the traveller dashes over the narrow arch that spans each yawning chasm.

Aborrfors, 16 v. The position of this village is one of the most picturesque on the road. Approaching it from Lovisa, there is a broad stream winding along a valley, immediately beyond which rises a hill of considerable elevation; its sides and summit are covered with red cottages, and around them is a forest with its giant boulders looking like specks on the dark green mantle.

Broby, 20 v. Between this and the next station, the fortress which formerly marked the frontier of Sweden, and was then guarded with the most jealous care, is passed. Its scarped sides and ditches still remain; but the place is, in other respects, totally neglected, and even uninhabited. Shortly after, a

turn in the road will bring the traveller in sight of a beautiful waterfall of the river Kymen, near Högfors; as such it would be considered by many; but to travellers who are fresh from that of Trollhättan, or those of Italy, its beauties will appear somewhat questionable. This stage is hilly; the road, however, good.

Högfors, 14 v. The next stage is long, and almost the whole way through one unbroken pine forest, the trees coming in many places quite down to the edge of the road; the whole country being covered with stupendous boulder-stones, many of them far larger than the one which forms the base of the celebrated statue of Peter the Great at St. Petersburg. In some places the rock pierces through its thin covering of earth and vegetable matter, and spreads its hard surface, uncovered by shrub or plant, over a space of many square yards. At length the view opens, and the fortress of Fredrikshamn is seen on the opposite side of an arm of the sea, which runs some miles inland, and round the shores of which the road winds its way.

7. Fredrikshamn, 20 v. The works here were constructed on Vauban's principle; but, judging by the neglected aspect of the place, Russia has very little use for them. Originally it was a place of great strength, and inaccessible on 2 sides; the approaches are covered and protected by field-works to a considerable distance, and the only entrance to the town, which looks as deserted as the fortifications, is by a narrow passage winding round the angle of a bastion, enfiladed in every direction by the works from the body of the place. The post-house seems to have escaped the general ruin, being one of the best on the road. Fredrikshamn was, in former days, the residence of the governor of the province: a massive tower, constructed in the middle of a square, overlooked the whole town, and from this every street diverged like the spokes of a wheel. It was in this tower, and on the 5th of September, 1809, that the treaty of peace was signed, by which Sweden surrendered Finland to Russia. A fire consumed the tower and several of the streets some few years since.

Risalaks. Not far from hence are the granite-quarries from which were drawn the monolith columns for the church of St. Isaac at St. Petersburg.

8. Wyborg.—(*Hotels:* Ehrenburg's, recommended; Society's House.) The port of Wyborg is of great extent, and enclosed by 2 large islands which form as it were 2 natural breakwaters. The houses are inhabited by merchants, workmen, and innkeepers, and surrounded by immense quantities of deals, of which there is a considerable export trade. The town is about 12 versts from the harbour, and at the end of a large bay. Between the old lines of fortification and the city flows a broad arm of the sea, in the midst of which stands a solitary rock, crowned with a fine old tower of other days, rearing its still proud head, high and imposing above all around it. It must in ages past have been a magnificent donjon keep, and the shot-marks upon its walls bear witness that the tide of battle has often raged around it. Its upper stories are now roofless; the lower ones are used as a prison. The view of Wyborg, with its churches and domes flashing in the sun, is very striking; but the approach to it by land is bad; from the foot of the glacis to the post-house the pavement is of the worst kind. The castle of Wyborg, destroyed by fire, and now in ruins, was built in 1293, by the brave Torkel Knutson, one of the most illustrious Swedes mentioned in history. The fortifications date from the 15th centy. Wyborg was then one of the cities of Finland, and the seat of a bishopric. Attacked on several occasions by the Russians, it defended itself with great bravery. In 1710 the place was besieged by Peter the Great, and taken after a hard struggle which occupied several weeks. The peace of 1721, known as the Treaty of Nystadt, put the Tsar in definitive possession of it and the neighbouring country; and in 1745 the Treaty of Åbo enlarged

still further this conquest. For nearly a century the conquered portions of Finland, distinguished as Gamla Finland, or Ancient Finland, were subject to the same regulations in civil matters as the rest of Russia. After the conquest of the country had been completed they were reunited to the provinces from which they had been separated, and the same privileges were conceded to them which Finland had originally enjoyed under the Swedes. Wyborg is now the chief town of a province, and has a supreme court of justice; it contains 6000 Inhab., divided into Finlanders, Russians, Swedes, and Germans.

Baron Nicolai's house and grounds of "Mon Repos," where the scenery of Finland is represented in miniature, are a short distance from the town.

From Wyborg an excursion should be made to the magnificent falls of Imatra, on the Vuox river, 59 v. from Wyborg. The scenery attracts numerous visitors from St. Petersburg. This is also the resort of fishermen. Trout abound in the lakes and rivers of Finland, and the falls of Imatra afford excellent sport. Visitors should inquire for a local fisherman, who for 60 copeks will provide an excellent day's fishing. The fish and the current being very powerful, the strongest gut should be used and the line considerably lengthened. Up to the middle of July 20 and 30 lbs. of fish may be killed in a day. Large red palmers are a good bait. The fishing throughout Finland is very good, and will no doubt attract many anglers as soon as Norway is thoroughly overrun. Accommodation may be had at the Post-house of Imatra, but provisions should be brought from Wyborg. The falls of Vallin-Koski, a short distance beyond those of Imatra, are inferior in grandeur, but far more picturesque.

The Canal and Lake of Saima, which unite the Gulf of Finland with the Lake of Ladoga, should also be visited from Wyborg, as much for the beauty of the scenery as for the sake of inspecting the locks and other works on the canal, which is 54 v. long. It was opened to navigation in 1856.

From Wyborg St. Petersburg may be reached by steamer in a day. Travellers wishing to see more of Finland may take the post-road to the capital.

The next edition of this Handbook will describe a line of rail from St. Petersburg to Helsingfors, now in course of construction, and which will in all probability be pushed on to Hango-udd.

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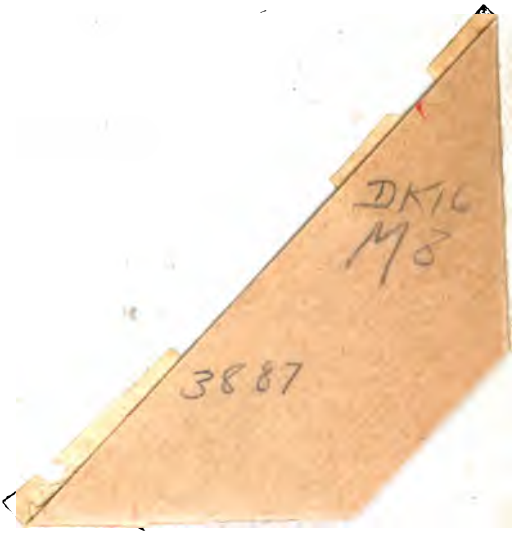

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